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ABSTRACT

Emerging professional roles for teacher educators are examined by three educators from three different viewpoints, and a critique of the positions developed is undertaken by a spokesman for the teacher organization viewpoint of professional development. Karl Massanari examines the changes currently affecting the education of teachers--social, political, and those within education and teacher education. From this discussion, the basis is laid for proposals responding to these changes. William Drummond explores the current situation in colleges and universities, examines internal problems in these institutions, and discusses sixteen potential roles for the college-based teacher educator. W. Robert Houston develops the major thesis that social and educational developments call for new professional roles in teacher education. Roles of those persons responsible for staff development are explored, and on the basis of past and present practices, nine theses suggesting future practices for school based staff development are presented. In summarizing the contextual conditions determining new and modified roles for teacher educators, Massanari examines the characteristics of the arena in which educational professional development takes place and calls attention to underlying issues that will eventually determine what new roles will be created and supported. In his summary critique, Roy Edelfelt reacts to the contributions of each of the preceding writers and argues that the separate efforts of schools and colleges need not be in contest, that there is more work to be done in pre- and inservice education than all college- and school-based educators can handle, and that the problem lies in developing programs and approaches that satisfy practitioner needs. (MJB)

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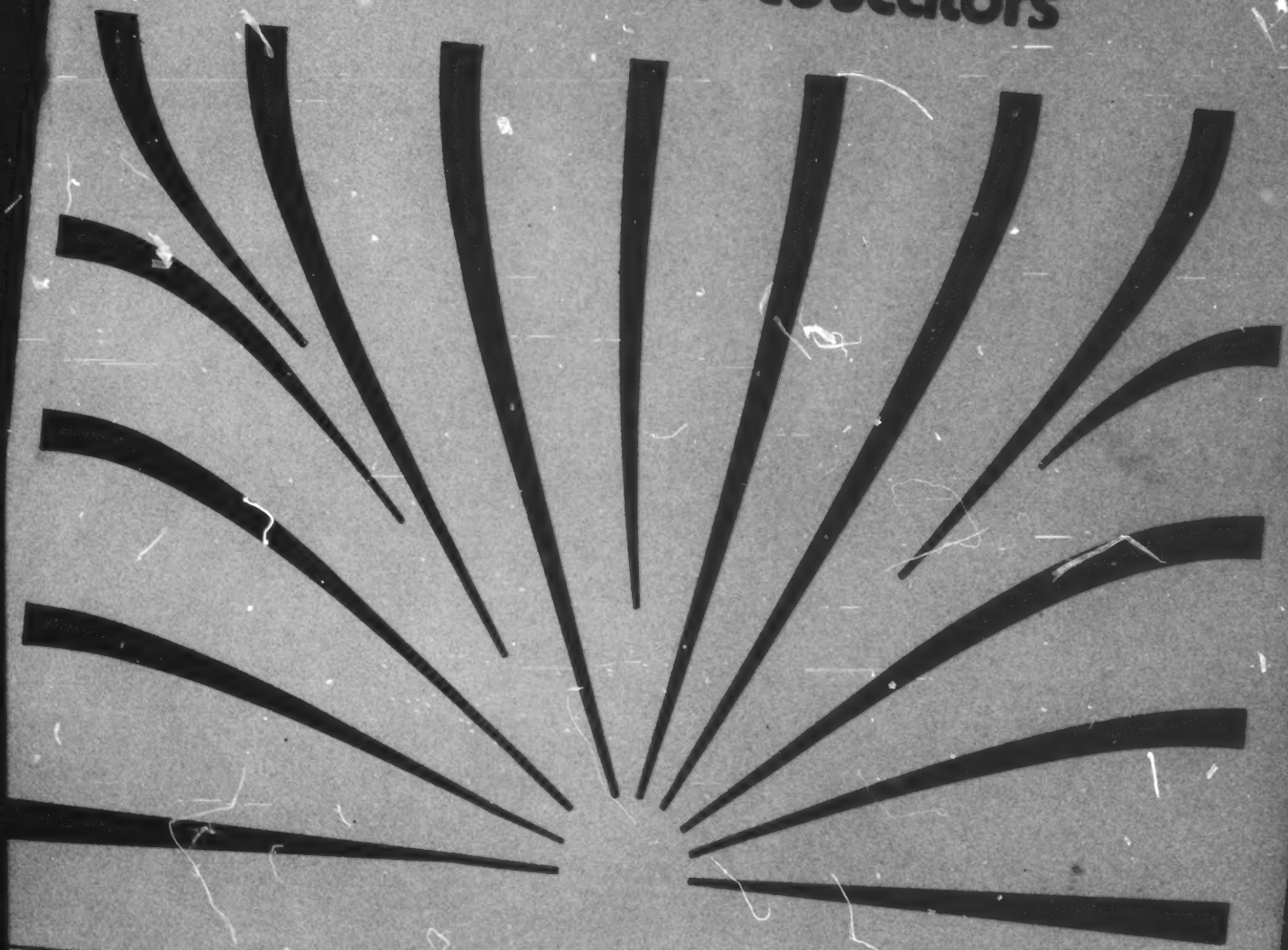

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education

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EMERGING PROFESSIONAL ROLES

FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	v
Chapter I CHANGING CONDITIONS AND PERSPECTIVES ABOUT THEM *Karl Massanari*	1
Chapter II EMERGING ROLES OF THE COLLEGE-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR *William H. Drummond*	15
Chapter III EMERGING ROLES OF THE SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR *W. Robert Houston*	37
Chapter IV DECISION MAKING ABOUT NEW PROFESSIONAL ROLES IN TEACHER EDUCATION *Karl Massanari*	61
CRITIQUE *Roy A. Edelfelt*	71

FOREWORD

Teacher education today is in an unprecedented state of ferment. Barely two decades distant from the 21st century, the future direction of this important enterprise has been cast into confusion. Higher education institutions, teacher organizations, and state departments of education are engaged in efforts to reduce that confusion by seeking answers to basic problems, answers that will lead to more effective programs of education personnel development. The crucial issues at stake: Who shall control the preparation of education personnel for tomorrow's schools? And who shall determine the continuing staff development priorities--needs to be met, content of training programs, delivery systems, and quality control mechanisms?

The results of a number of well-conceived cooperative efforts in teacher education across the country suggest that such approaches are likely to be more productive in the long run than a reliance on unilateral approaches. College-based teacher educators--so frequently stereotyped as armchair experts--are beginning to recognize that they do not have all the answers, and are initiating mutually beneficial partnerships with practitioners. Teachers, having reaffirmed their professional standing, are seeking self-renewal beyond their immediate peer group. State departments of education, realizing they cannot effectively carry out their responsibilities unilaterally, are creating mechanisms to involve other sections of the education profession.

Thus the refrain, in this publication, for establishing, maintaining, and strengthening linkages: between schools and higher education institutions, between state departments of education and other sectors of the profession, between preservice and inservice education programs, between theory and practice, between knowledge producers and disseminators and knowledge users. Thus the recurrent emphasis on mutual decision making about future needs in education personnel development, and about the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in the coming years.

Who will be the trainers of tomorrow's teachers? Where will those teachers be trained? What roles are envisioned for teacher educators in the foreseeable future? Answering these questions is essential before new teacher education programs can be designed, before financial and human resources can be reallocated, before teacher educators with the necessary qualities can be selected and prepared. Finding the best answers will enable the profession to act with forethought rather than react defensively. Options in teacher preparation depend on imaginative forecasting, now, of alternative futures extrapolated from accumulated knowledge. By describing "emerging" roles for teacher educators, the authors of this publication implicitly serve notice that their predictions rely on the lessons of the past and their observations of present trends. Each chapter approaches these emerging roles from a different perspective.

In Chapter I, Karl Massanari sets the social and political context influencing whatever decisions are made, and provides a catalyst for creative futurizing.

In Chapter II, William H. Drummond analyzes internal problems in colleges of education, then turns a visionary eye to 16 potential roles for the college-based teacher educator.

In Chapter III, W. Robert Houston distills the essence of his work in a two-year project with school-based teacher educators, and sets forth his observations about their developing roles in nine theses.

In Chapter IV, Massanari draws implications, for the various actors in the education arena, of issues which will have a direct or indirect bearing on decision making about future roles for teacher educators.

In incorporating within this publication the critique of Roy Edelfelt, a respected spokesman for the teacher organization viewpoint of professional development, the authors have added another dimension to provoke reader thought and reaction to the scenarios they have envisioned.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, as the principal agency representing higher education institutions charged with teacher education, and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, in its capacity as a repository for information at the service of the education profession, have cooperated in the generation, publication, and dissemination of this publication. Comments and reactions from readers are welcomed.

EDWARD C. POMEROY
Executive Director
American Association
of Colleges for
Teacher Education

Chapter I

CHANGING CONDITIONS AND PERSPECTIVES ABOUT THEM

Karl Massanari

The commissioning of this monograph is a recognition that, as a result of major changes occurring in society and education, some of the roles people will play in teacher education tomorrow will be different from those of today. The changes which have impact on the education of teachers are both planned and unplanned. Some are rooted in societal conditions which impinge upon education generally; others reflect developments within the profession itself. This arena of change--occurring at an accelerating rate--provides the context for this monograph.

THE CONTEXT[1]

Societal Conditions

A number of societal issues serve as a backdrop for the continuing drama in education. They help to shape attitudes toward schools as social institutions and the extent to which the public is willing to support them; they influence expectation levels of parents regarding what the purposes of schools should be and what schools should accomplish; they have a bearing on the nature of school curricula, the qualifications of education personnel who work in them, and the kinds of preparation programs needed for professional school personnel; and they help to shape attitudes of pupils toward schools and the worthwhileness of education.

The consequences for education of some of these issues are implicit and must be inferred; others have more explicit and obvious implications. Among the former are:

1. Growing distrust of established organizations and institutions, especially those associated with federal and state governments
2. Continuing centralization of power at the state and federal levels
3. Increasing reliance on the law and the legal profession for defining and judging appropriate human behavior, with corresponding decreasing reliance on ethics and common sense (decency) in resolving minor disputes
4. More anxiety about personal security as a result of the burgeoning of violent and organized crime
5. A growing realization that the world's natural resources are limited and that economic growth may not be automatically beneficial
6. Increased concern about energy shortages and the pollution of air, water, and food
7. More anxiety about inflation and unemployment
8. A turning toward philosophical and religious movements which focus attention and activity inwardly--to cope with the world by reflecting on it rather than by trying to change it.

[1] The ideas included in the Context section were generated through interaction among the three authors of this monograph.

Among the issues with a more obvious relationship to education are:

1. Unremitting pressure to equalize educational opportunities among socioeconomic/racial subgroups in society and between the sexes
2. Continuing and sometimes increased expectation that schools as social institutions should cure a variety of social ills (through, for example, alcohol/drug education, driver/safety education, sex education)
3. Increasing demand on the part of parents and the public for "accountability" regarding educational outcomes
4. Growing concern that something needs to be done about the disintegration of moral values
5. Heightened awareness that we are living in one world and that there is an erosion of personal integrity, excellence, and pride in doing things well
6. Pervasive feelings of helplessness--that the individual has little ability to influence or redirect the future of his or her own life space.

Conditions in Education and Teacher Education

Within the education establishment, a number of forces and conditions--many of which emerged during the 1970s--are impinging on the future of teacher education. They will influence the kinds of professionals needed in schools as well as the kinds of teacher educators needed to prepare those professionals; they will have an impact on both pre- and inservice education of professional personnel in schools.

The number of children entering public schools has declined as a consequence of a decrease in birth rate. The reduced enrollment has been moving through the elementary schools on a yearly basis and is now beginning to be felt in the secondary schools. In approximately four years, enrollments in higher education likely will be falling as well.

Declining enrollments in the public schools along with the graduation of record numbers of teacher education students from colleges and universities caused a sudden change in the supply and demand for teachers. With elementary teaching faculties being reduced and more new teachers available as well, it became untenable for districts to employ less than fully prepared teachers. The elimination of the teacher shortage has resulted in less teacher turnover in employment and has produced, almost for the first time in the history of this country, a stable teaching force. These teachers, holding regular or standard certification, have no statutory requirement to return to the college campus for further graduate study.

Policy makers came to the realization that, with the majority of classroom teachers fully certified and tenured, further improvement in American schools would have to depend on the teachers and principals who are already in the schools. Thus, many state legislatures began passing laws which (a) attempted to define minimum outcomes for schooling--trying to make schools and teachers accountable for achieving predefined outcomes, and (b) provided funds for inservice education in support of the mandated outcomes.

The movement to mandate outcomes and the ways pupils will be taught can be illustrated at the federal level by the passage of the Education of All

Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) which requires that the individual needs of children be assessed, recorded, and charted, and that a diagnostic-prescriptive mode of instruction for each handicapped pupil be applied. Similarly, several states have passed laws specifying minimum competency standards in the basic skills (reading, mathematics, consumer knowledge) for the various grade levels, and particularly for high school graduation.

The mandating of outcomes led state legislatures to support inservice education for the teachers being affected. In some states, specific categorical funds on a per pupil basis are now provided to school districts for inservice education. In many states, requirements for districts to develop annual inservice plans to meet state mandates are included in "accountability" legislation. It became clear that if the states were mandating inservice education and providing a major share of the resources being used in local districts for inservice education, they should devise some way to influence, monitor, or control the nature and quality of the inservice education being provided. Since the norms and traditions of higher education generally have opposed political intervention in program development and operation, states began to look at other organizational forms, utilizing and combining the resources of colleges of education and the school districts, for providing services to teachers. Some states responded by establishing intermediate service units and teacher education centers.

While these changes were taking place, a major and significant shift in power had occurred in the politics of education: the major professional organizations, the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), had come of age--NEA becoming exclusively teacher oriented and politically active, and AFT gaining strength and support from teachers in urban areas. Both groups, using their political action arms, entered partisan politics at the national level in 1974. Their efforts in behalf of the Carter-Mondale ticket in 1976 have been recognized by President Carter as having an influence on federal education policy.

Although several states have yet to pass collective bargaining laws, collective bargaining in education is having a major effect on resource allocations, especially at the school district level. Even though considerable effort has been exerted to try to keep inservice education, staff development, and curriculum development out of the considerations at the bargaining table, the close tie between salaries, the conditions of work, incentives, and rewards on the one hand and the effectiveness of the teacher on the other causes one to believe that more and more the allocation of resources for education personnel development will be influenced in some way by collective bargaining.

Meanwhile, the education "profession" at large is trying to decide whether it wants to become a unified profession in the full sense of that term; remain--as it is now--essentially a semi-profession; or join the ranks of the trade unions. The future is unclear at this time.

Similarly, various sectors within education (teacher organizations, school districts, higher education institutions, state departments of education) are still attempting to determine if the improvement of education practice can best be accomplished through fragmented, independent efforts or through cooperative approaches involving all who have a stake in the enterprise. The "profession" has not yet learned how to work as a

unified group within society for the betterment of education for children and youth.

Other developments in teacher education should be mentioned. With respect to preparation programs, these include (a) an increasing emphasis by colleges and universities on expanding the amount and upgrading the quality of field-based experiences for students in preservice programs; (b) the emergence of competency-based teacher education programs; (c) the establishment and operation of formal inservice education programs by an increasing number of school districts; and (d) growing awareness that more attention must be given to controlling the quality of all types of programs for the pre- and inservice education of professional school personnel.

Among developments stimulated by federal activity are (a) the enactment of teacher center legislation which will support a national network of local, school-based teacher centers with inservice education capabilities; and (b) the continued experience of Teacher Corps projects with emphasis on collaboration in decision making, low faculty-student ratios in training programs, provision of opportunities for trainess from low socioeconomic backgrounds, and demonstration of alternative delivery systems for inservice education.

Meanwhile, there has been a growing realization of the inadequacy of the knowledge base which supports the education of teachers, as well as an increased awareness that education research should focus on current problems faced by classroom teachers and that teachers themselves should be involved in such research activity.

PERSPECTIVES ON CHANGING CONDITIONS

The conditions in society, education in general, and teacher education in particular provide the background for discussing emerging professional roles in teacher education. That they will emerge is assumed. It is envisioned that some of these emerging roles will be new ones; others, modifications of existing roles. They will appear in colleges and universities, schools, teacher centers, educational service centers, state departments of education, and in other organizations and agencies that are involved in some way in the education of professional school personnel. The determination of what these roles will or should be is not yet clear, but it will be made, in part, by how educators view and respond to the contextual situation. Three perspectives about changing conditions in society and education might be described as (a) periodic adaptation, (b) extrapolation from present trends, and (c) forecasting of alternative futures.

Periodic Adaptation

The most common response in the past has been for education institutions, organizations, and agencies to attempt to keep pace with changing conditions by making piecemeal adjustments in programs and by relying on periodic retooling of personnel. This approach places the institution, organization, or agency in a position where it must continually be catching up with change. It is short range in its outlook. Because institutional/organizational change tends to occur slowly, adaptation

often lags behind. In addition, it becomes increasingly difficult to keep pace since many changes in society and education are occurring at an accelerated rate.

With this approach new professional roles in teacher education are unlikely to be created. Periodic retooling will result in slight, temporary modifications of existing roles to accommodate the demands of the present. It is probable that many educators will be content to continue to rely on this short-range approach; doing so carries with it the limitations noted.

Extrapolation from Present Trends

Another response to changing conditions in society and education is to view them as challenging indicators of needs for the immediate future. Current situations are studied and analyzed to find trends and to project future directions; the immediate future is extrapolated from present conditions. This perspective makes an assumption of continuity, that the present will shape the immediate future.

With this approach, the creation of new professional roles for teacher educators will be viewed as necessary, and modifications of existing roles likely will be less temporary than in a periodic adaptation response. The nature of these emerging roles will differ in relation to different interpretations of present circumstances.

Forecasting of Alternative Futures

A third perspective of changing conditions is to view them as clues for predicting long-range outcomes. It is futuristic in its orientation and depends heavily on speculation, prediction, and probability. The uncertainty associated with prediction leads to the forecasting of alternative futures rather than only one. Predictions about the future draw heavily on analyses and interpretations by social scientists.

This approach results in the projection of a variety of new professional roles for educators and teacher educators. The nature of these new roles is determined by the demands and needs of the future which is forecast.

Figure 1 summarizes the three approaches to the determination of what roles for teacher educators are needed in relation to changing conditions in society and education.

PROPOSALS FOR RESPONDING TO CHANGING CONDITIONS

The preceding delineation of three perspectives of changing conditions in society and education is in a sense an arbitrary mechanism used primarily for the purpose of analysis. In reality, proposals for responding to these conditions tend to be more eclectic in nature, and their scope encompasses more than the topic of what new professional roles are needed for teacher educators. In some cases the roles are addressed explicitly, in others implicitly. The following are illustrative of such proposals.

Figure 1

EMERGING PROFESSIONAL ROLES FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS
AND CHANGING CONDITIONS IN SOCIETY AND EDUCATION

Characteristic	Approaches to the Determination of Roles		
	Periodic Adaptation	Extrapolation from Present Trends	Forecasting of Alternative Futures
View of changing conditions	they present problems and circumstances to be responded to	they present opportunities and indicators for the immediate future	they present opportunities and clues to the distant future
Response	periodic and temporary reactions	assumes continuity of trends and extrapolates from them	uses present conditions as a basis for predicting alternative futures
Position in relation to changing conditions	usually lags behind	attempts to keep pace or ahead of	attempts to be far ahead of
General outlook	short range	medium range	long range
Roles for teacher educators	periodic and temporary modifications of existing roles to accommodate present demands	creation of new roles and modification of present roles to accommodate the immediate future as extrapolated from present trends	creation of new roles and modification of present roles to accommodate long-range alternative futures

The Future: Implications for the Preparation of Educational Personnel

Corrigan[2] argued that "the knowledge and technology explosion, the explosion of human interaction, and a new view of schools imply dramatic changes not only in the education and reeducation of today's teachers but in the development of new kinds of educational personnel not found in current staffing patterns." If education is to become more individualized and personalized, new kinds of personnel with diverse talents will be needed. New specializations will be required which focus on the teacher less as a content specialist and more as a specialist in the nature of learning and the use of learning resources. These specializations will be concentrated in "teaching teams" which will work not only with children and youth but with other teachers as well. Examples of such teaching specialties include: research associate, associate in teacher education, curriculum associate, diagnostician in learning and teaching, visual literacy specialist, computer-assisted instruction specialist, systems analyst and evaluator, simulation and gaming specialist, professional negotiator, and liaison specialist (community, inquiry, social agencies).

New approaches to teacher education will be required which bring preservice and inservice teachers in the same training program together in a team relationship. Training will become a by-product of a joint search for better ways to improve the learning environment. Education personnel development must be reconceptualized as training which takes place partly on campus and partly in selected affiliated school districts or community agencies. The resulting cooperating units will serve as "personnel development or teaching centers," and serve the same function as hospitals serve for medical schools. The author noted that "research and training will emerge from the problems confronted in improving the delivery of educational services. Distinctions between faculty in schools and colleges will fade as research and training, and demonstrated competency in these roles, become the responsibility of all members of the education profession."

Educating a Profession

In its 1976 report, the AACTE Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching[3] examined teaching as a profession, discussed the governance of teacher education, addressed the design of career-long preparation for teachers, and considered quality control of preparation programs. Recommendations were made for each topic. In its closing challenge, the Commission asserted that "the American people face a crucial choice concerning their schools. Either they reaffirm their faith in education through increased financial and psychological support, or they will experience the end of public education.

2 Dean C. Corrigan. "The Future: Implications for the Preparation of Educational Personnel." The Journal of Teacher Education 25 (1): 100-107; Summer 1974. EJ 101 717

3 Robert B. Howsam, Chairman, et al. Educating a Profession. Report of the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Washington, D.C.: AACTE, 1976. ED 117 053

"In order to earn this support, the profession of education must radically improve its beliefs and practices. For complex reasons, the professional culture (the technical procedures and conceptual base) has continued to retain large elements of conventional wisdom and craft practices. The failure of the teaching profession to advance beyond this stage is a major cause in the inability of the schools to meet the educational challenges of modern times. Teachers have not been prepared to deal effectively with the bewildering anomalies of American life. The schools themselves have not been designed to overcome these problems.

"Throughout this report, the Commission has held that contemporary educators must demonstrate a high degree of professional skill and understanding. Unfortunately, preservice, inservice, and continuing education have been slow to enhance the overall quality of present professional performance. . . . What the profession needs is a totally new set of concepts regarding the nature of the emerging human service society, its educational demands, the kinds of delivery systems necessary to provide public access to continuing educational opportunity, and the types of professional personnel and training required to reform public education in America. What passed as adequate teacher education in simple times simply does not suffice in the more complex society. If our country's educational system is to thrive--even survive--it must have a preparation and research arm that is striving to create the future, not just accept it."

A Futures Perspective on Preparing Educators for the Human Service Society

Nash and Ducharme[4] projected the role of professional human service educator as necessary to responding responsibly to changing conditions in society and education. They argued that "educators, during the last quarter of the twentieth century, will have an extraordinary opportunity for leadership in a society experiencing dramatic convulsions as it shifts from a long, seemingly predestined, period of highly industrialized capital-intensive and resource-depleting growth, to one where people everywhere will be struggling to simplify life-styles, conserve energy, and subsist at alarming inflationary economic levels, all the while trying to preserve a modicum of self-determination and dignity. . . . Educators must broaden their range of vision beyond mere classroom teaching competence in order to help individuals and groups in a variety of extra-classroom settings find power and meaning in their personal and professional lives."

The authors held that teacher education programs must enlarge their missions, and diversify their training formats and delivery systems, in order to produce what they call the professional human service educator. They maintained that no longer will any teacher, administrator, or counselor expect a lifetime of uninterrupted public school service in a specific role. Their evolving definition of human service educator was "a helping professional and effective teacher who uses appropriate knowledge, values, and skills, vis-a-vis a variety of face-to-face and group interventions, in order to enable needful persons to realize their human,

4 Robert J. Nash and Edward R. Ducharme. "A Futures Perspective on Preparing Educators for the Human Service Society: How To Restore a Sense of Social Purpose to Teacher Education." Teachers College Record 77 (4): 441-72; May 1976. EJ 150 747

professional, and political potential so that they might grow in the directions they choose--directions which in the long run are mutually beneficial to the individual and the group, and life-enhancing."

Education Personnel for Alternative Futures

After making a number of projections about the future, Burdin[5] concluded that "the exact roles of education personnel are not clear in crystal balls. Hopefully, the profession of teaching will be on stronger research and theoretical underpinnings than it is now. Nevertheless, certain predictions can be made about the kind of education personnel required for effective functioning in the future to a greater extent than now." The following kinds of roles for teachers in the future are suggested: values clarifiers and developers, learning diagnosticians and prescription specialists, resource finders, interdisciplinary learning specialists, community learning facilitators, human relations developers, career and leisure counselors, profession builders and leaders, and users of futuristic processes.

Obligation for Reform

In the final report of the Higher Education Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education[6], Denemark and Yff asserted that there must be significant change in the education system so that it becomes more responsive to the needs of individuals, and that a critical aspect of this change is the preparation and retraining of educators. As a vehicle for preparing and retraining educators they conceptualize the Personnel Development Center, defined simply as a place where education personnel preparation and retraining happens. Heavy emphasis is placed on cooperative approaches between schools and higher education to carry out these functions. It is assumed that the need for modifying present roles of teacher educators and creating new roles will emerge from the interaction which takes place within cooperatively operated centers.

Two other proposals should be mentioned. They are commented on here only briefly because they are described in greater detail in the chapters which follow. In Chapter II, William H. Drummond discusses the changing work of college-based teacher educators and then projects 16 emerging professional roles for teacher educators. In Chapter III, W. Robert Houston discusses the emerging professional roles of school-based teacher educators and the competencies needed for those roles.

5 Joel L. Burdin. "Toward Challenging Peaks: Education Personnel for Alternative Futures." 1977 ATE Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1977. Address presented during the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, February 3, 1977. ED 141 311

6 George W. Denemark and Joost Yff. Obligation for Reform. Final Report of the Higher Education Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974. ED 087 744

PERSONNEL FOR SCHOOL AND NONSCHOOL SETTINGS

These proposals all reflect dissatisfaction with the state of the scene in education personnel preparation. They indicate that preservice and inservice education of school personnel is not keeping pace with the demands of changing conditions in society and education. Implicitly, if not explicitly, they call for modifications of existing professional roles in teacher education and/or the creation of new ones.

For the most part, the discussion in this monograph focuses on the preparation of professional personnel for society's schools, particularly the public schools. But education occurs in other settings as well. What kinds of professional educators are needed to prepare personnel who will work in these settings? How can they be prepared most effectively? These are appropriate questions in relation to personnel who work in alternative types of schools, state and federal education agencies with expanding staffs, professional organizations and associations whose mission is to stimulate educational practice, and on school boards which formulate educational policy at the local level.

Education personnel also serve and increasingly are needed in other settings which are not directly related to the school system. The same questions are appropriate with respect to education personnel who serve in education divisions of business and industry, the press and media, community agencies and volunteer organizations, adult and continuing education programs, the military, prisons, health-related services, and as educators in other professional colleges (such as medicine, dentistry, law, or nursing).

Scrutiny of the changing conditions in society and education provides a sound basis for beginning to determine what kinds of education personnel are needed and the nature of preparation programs for them.

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Changing conditions in society and education are having a profound impact on higher education's role in education personnel development. Some schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) already have felt the first shockwaves of this impact and with urgency are retooling programs and retraining staff to keep abreast of changing demands in teacher education. Other SCDEs are yet to be jolted by the fact that school personnel increasingly are turning to other agencies and institutions to find opportunities for staff development. The current situation in colleges and universities is explored in depth by William H. Drummond.

Chapter II

EMERGING ROLES OF THE COLLEGE-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR

William H. Drummond

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and forecast what the future roles may be for persons interested in education personnel development who are affiliated with schools, colleges, or departments of education in institutions of higher education.[7]

The fact that a paper such as this one has been commissioned is a recognition that all is not well with colleges of education, that major changes, whether planned or unplanned, are occurring in teacher education, and that the roles people will play in teacher education tomorrow may be somewhat different from those of today (Clark, 1977). In the previous chapter Karl Massanari, reviewing the changing conditions facing colleges of education in the late seventies, described the external pressures facing these colleges. In this chapter it is my intention to: (a) give a brief summary of the internal problems facing administrative and teaching faculties in colleges of education today, (b) provide an analysis of how the work of college-based teacher educators seems to be changing, and (c) describe and discuss projected or emerging roles for college-based teacher educators emanating from the analysis presented.

INTERNAL PROBLEMS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

A recital of the challenges facing public schools is not needed here. The reader should be reminded, however, that issues such as the relationship between compulsory schooling and the educational needs of the people, the appropriate role of government in education, and the sociocultural and economic challenges to be faced in the immediate years ahead will or should have an impact on the internal operation of colleges of education (Schmieder, 1975). College faculties, like other groups, face change reluctantly, often trying to avoid confrontation with reality. At times their coping behavior leads them to reduce their scope of communications, to avoid unfriendly critics, to "kill messengers bearing bad news," to give in to their isolationist and paranoid tendencies. But this isn't the whole story; there are circumstances, organizational problems, and norms which militate against faculties facing up to needed reform:

1. The work measurement unit used for funding college programs is typically the student credit hour or full-time equivalent student (FTE). The FTE usually is based upon classroom contact hours for on-campus instruction. This practice assumes that formal instruction in a college classroom in a course format is the way for students to learn and for professors to teach. Courses offered off-campus through offices of field service or extension commonly are taught as an overload, providing the faculty member with extra income. Although some states have adopted "continuing education units" (CEUs) as a basis for calculating off-campus

[7] In this paper I will refer to schools, colleges, or departments of education as "colleges of education" and personnel who work in these institutional entities as "college-based teacher educators."

load or productivity, these, too, conceptualize the professor's work as the teaching of formal college-type courses.

2. The incentives and rewards provided to college personnel, usually in the form of promotion in rank or tenure in the college, are typically awarded using criteria which give preference to those who write and publish (Tuckman and Hagemann, 1976). Faculty committees that govern promotion and tenure generally develop a rating system to grade individual faculty achievement, a system which includes judgments of teaching quality, service to the college, service to the community, and research and publication. From my experience, the factor which provides the greatest discrepancy between candidates is the writing and research category. Younger faculty members, already at the mercy of the economic system, are advised and soon learn to focus their time and attention on writing and research. Both writing and research require extended periods of time away from course teaching. Thus the typical college or university incentive and reward policies and procedures work against what most students, parents, and legislators want from professors--excellence in teaching and extensive service to the state.

3. Promotion and tenure policies are usually university-wide (except perhaps in colleges of medicine and law), therefore are suited to traditional, on-campus faculty behavior.

4. Personnel involved in preservice or inservice activities in the field have fewer on-campus contacts, serve less effectively on faculty committees, and hence tend less often to receive institutional recognition or rewards. As teacher education programs become more field-based, the on-campus political power of the faculty of the college of education is lessened. Thus the incentives and rewards system discourages practitioner-oriented, field-based instruction, as well as off-campus service and research.

5. Off-campus service for non-course, non-credit producing activities typically are not counted as part of faculty load. Field-oriented professors generally try to develop off-campus constituencies with the necessary resources who can hire them to work as consultants for extra remuneration. Colleges usually establish some limits on the amount of time professors can serve clients off-campus for extra remuneration. Typical college policy and economic reality encourage the young faculty member to write and publish and to develop a private saleable set of skills for off-campus services to augment his or her income. The growth of private consulting firms in response to an expanded federal role in education in the late 1960s reduced the opportunity for college-based teacher educators to compete with private consultants for extra remuneration.

6. Program budgeting and project management--modern ways to allocate resources and to carry out necessary and approved activities within an organization--typically have not been established in colleges of education. Legislatures in most states are insisting that the top management of higher education in the states submit budgets based on modern management principles; but internally to most university systems, program planning, budgeting, and evaluation are not required or expected of college of education deans. Thus the management processes and styles required of the

larger state system are inconsistent with and unrelated to the work of the various colleges and departments.[8]

7. Because field service is done outside of or in addition to the regular load of the faculty member, field service or off-campus work often is not included as part of the budget request to the board of trustees or the legislature. (The supervision of student teachers or interns, however, frequently is an exception.) In Florida, the publicly supported colleges of education are allocated, through the state university system, a certain number of faculty "lines" (full-time equivalent faculty positions) to provide services to teacher education centers. In other states, intermediate service agencies for staff development are receiving funds which they may use in acquiring services from colleges and universities in their geographic regions. It would appear at this time that the trend is for states to provide staff development resources to the schools directly so that the schools may then select and obtain the services they want or need from whomever they wish. Without continuing budget support for field service, colleges of education will have to gear up for what schools want (as contrasted with what schools need) if they, the colleges, wish to be involved in technical assistance.

8. Most colleges of education have meager travel funds, seriously limiting the amount of time and geographic space in which field service can be rendered. With continuing personal contact being a critical precondition for curriculum improvement and implementation, and with the energy shortage driving up the cost of off-campus travel, colleges of education will have to develop new and different ways for interacting with schools if they are to take on expanded field service roles.

9. Because services to schools by college-based teacher educators are financed by either (a) credit producing activities in which the students participating in the program pay the bill or (b) individual contracts with professors for prespecified services, seldom are contracts made between colleges of education and public schools extending over several months or years. Although the literature on organizational change would support the establishment of extended relationships or contracts between schools and external change agents, the norms and policies of both public school organizations and colleges of education typically do not support such arrangements. School organizations seem not to view colleges of education as change agents in any case.

10. Professors in colleges of education typically have received training in their advanced degree preparation to work on campus as a lecturer, workshop leader, or research worker. Although most advanced degree programs in education require prior successful experience in public or private school education, few programs require field-based skill or knowledge as an integral part of preparation. Traditional graduate study

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8 This is not meant to imply that universities or school orgnizations are or should be closely-coupled systems. It does imply that what is being talked about at higher organizational levels of management doesn't make sense at lower levels.

continues despite the realization that most verified knowledge in education at this time seems to be situation specific, that is, applicable only to the circumstances obtained at some particular time and place.

11. It has taken many years for the organized profession (the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association) to become politically active and sophisticated. Typically college of education faculty members are politically inactive and unaware of political realities--affiliating with political parties or movements only in a very limited way.

12. University professors, including those in colleges of education, value their independence and freedom from close supervision. Since colleges and departments are usually governed by their faculties, since faculty governance has protected faculty freedom and individuality, and since the traditions of the university have supported and nurtured criticism and dissent, it is very difficult to influence the faculty of a college to do anything in a unified way--except to defend its current position against attack or change. Faculty consensus is difficult to achieve except with respect to (a) very abstract principles for governing action and (b) steps needed for the institution to survive and continue. Thus, it is apparent that colleges of education are inextricably bound to university organizational life, and this institutional form has been organized over time to prevent change--to preserve a more cloistered, contemplative life style.

13. Unlike many other professional schools, the colleges of education do not control the preservice preparation programs for teachers. Half or more of the baccalaureate degree program is defined by general education committees or community college/university agreements. Typically elementary teachers spend a year and a half preparing to teach, while secondary teachers spend less than a year in professional courses.

14. It is difficult for colleges and universities, as currently organized, to encourage students to be engaged in real life work-study arrangements. Students out of high school are appropriately seeking selfhood, independence, new life styles, satisfying personal/social relationships as well as occupational competence and economic security. To the young, the life of the campus is captivating if not exciting. For older students, preparing to teach is serious business, but their time for work-study is limited by family obligations and part-time unrelated employment.

15. As has been said many times, college students on campus can learn about pupils, about what ought to be taught, and about teaching, but they can't learn how to teach without doing it and receiving feedback on their performance (Haberman, 1971). Programs of high quality seem to require high professional admission and retention standards, faculty members who can work effectively with students on and off the campus, and gifted teachers in schools who are willing to work closely with college students learning to teach.

One might summarize the internal problems found in colleges of education--the homeground of college-based teacher educators--as follows:

Although American schools and colleges are being forced to change as a result of legislative and congressional mandates, colleges of education have difficulty in responding to new demands; their organizational structures, norms, and traditions oppose change. In addition, the internal mechanisms for managing the work to be done at the department and college levels are, in most cases, ineffective and inefficient. Although some leaders in education may realize that change in teacher education is occurring, the managers of colleges of education (university presidents, academic vice presidents, and deans) have not created or installed (or been able to install) policies or procedures which provide incentives and rewards to individual faculty members to stimulate them to do field-based research, carry out long-term service activities, or create new preservice or inservice instruction programs, materials, and ideas (Clark, 1977; Corwin, 1972; Denemark and Yff, 1974; Howsam et al., 1976). At the same time, the problems of selecting and preparing teachers appropriately have not been faced; for example, funds and resources have not been allocated to ensure the identification and engagement of only the best teachers in the schools to work with student teachers and interns.

THE CHANGING WORK OF COLLEGE-BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

A number of assumptions can be drawn from the foregoing analyses of the external and internal contexts from which the future of colleges of education will emerge; these should be helpful in forecasting roles for campus-based teacher educators:

1. Professional preparation programs which are wholly campus-based, offered by campus-bound professors, without the approval and support of personnel in the field (the organized profession and school district leaders) will not continue to receive necessary public funding for their programs.

2. Colleges of education in order to survive will work to organize and to nurture political constituencies. At present, the most logical and appropriate political constituencies are: (a) the organized profession--the state affiliates of the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association; and (b) lay citizens who are involved in public education--parent-teacher-student organizations, school board members, citizen advisory committees, parents (Burdin et al., 1975).

3. Because colleges of education, as institutions, have the need and the collective will to survive, campus-based teacher educators will change; that is, they will direct more of their time and energies to (a) preservice programs of preparation that are field oriented and collaboratively developed with school districts and the organized profession; (b) design and development of materials for the inservice education of teachers, administrators, and other professional and education-related lay personnel; (c) the training of nonschool education personnel, (d) provision of technical assistance to schools; and (e) linking of ideas, people, and research endeavors to particular school needs and problems (Nash and Culbertson, 1977).

4. Preservice teacher preparation will gradually move to the graduate years. Because it is difficult to offer a field-oriented preservice program without interfering with traditional undergraduate, on-campus activities, and because the professional requirements for teaching will have become more stringent and more precise, initial certification will require an extended preparation period in the field. Undergraduate general education programs will require students to work a minimum of six months in some social service agency--participation as a school volunteer will be a popular option. Undergraduate pre-education programs will include required work in the history of the American school system, cultural anthropology, applied anthropology, the politics of education, consumer economics, development and learning, communications, and the skills required of persons entering the helping professions (Howsam et al., 1976).

5. College of education deans, departmental chairmen, and tenured faculty members will become more involved in partisan politics. More of the time of faculties will be devoted to the educational needs of all the people (not just those involved in compulsory education), and these needs will be interrelated with other human service needs. As a consequence, college-based teacher educators will work on joint faculty research and development teams with, for example, social service agencies, business, other colleges (such as medicine, engineering, law), churches, and volunteer organizations (Howsam et al., 1976).

6. Organizational changes which require the least change in roles or norms will be easiest to install, and vice versa (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977).

7. Many state-supported colleges of education will be given regional missions by their state legislatures. These missions will include: (a) technical assistance to all schools and public service agencies in the region, (b) systematic study of educational needs, projects, and programs within the region, (c) the linking of educational services to identified needs (Nash and Culbertson, 1977).

8. Many states will establish regional teacher centers or professional development service centers through which colleges of education will provide services to school personnel. These services may include: technical assistance in instructional design, needs assessment, documentation, research, evaluation; workshops and conferences on special topics; professional counseling; joint study groups and task forces.

9. Some states will require that colleges of education collaborate with community colleges and post-secondary vocational schools in providing educational services to lay citizens.

10. More of inservice education, technical assistance, and field services will be school-site oriented, the school being viewed as the unit for change. Elementary schools will return to being neighborhood schools; as such, they will become the locus of many family services. Middle schools will be smaller in size, with their students being bused to maintain a multicultural mix. High schools will not be compulsory. Many different types of magnet schools and nonschool opportunities, including a

variety of work-study program options, will be available to high school age students (Rubin, 1975).

11. Services to schools and school districts provided by college-based teacher educators, either directly or through a regional teacher center, will be based on a school/district/college contract continuing over a three- to five-year time period. Short-term service or technical assistance can be provided to schools by district staffs, state department of education personnel, or private consultants; longer-term service or assistance--for example, the time required to select, install, and fully implement a new curriculum option--can best be done through extended contracts with consultants not permanently associated with the school or the district.

12. The terms or agreements of extended service or technical assistance contracts between colleges, districts, and schools will be carried out by teams of college-based and school-based teacher educators. By working in teams, more talents are brought to bear on local problems, greater continuity can be pursued, and more complex linkages can be enjoyed. The organization of teams and the installation of project management processes will require improved communication.

13. Colleges of education and teacher centers will serve as research and development and instructional materials resource centers, linked with R & D and instructional resources in the state and the nation. College-based teacher educators and their students will be expected to: (a) contribute to the pool of validated materials and methods, (b) keep up to date in an appropriate area of study or expertise, and (c) keep in touch with their constituencies and/or clients regarding new developments either at the school sites or in the national pool of resources and materials (Nash and Culbertson, 1977).

14. Preservice programs will be competency based and site specific. Preservice students will be expected to work successfully with children from different socioeconomic backgrounds at more than one site (Medley, 1977).

15. Preservice programs will include a number of assessments of the prospective teacher's work with students as it occurs. Assessment instruments will be developed which are both reliable and acceptable to the organized teaching profession. Persons representing the college, the school, and the profession will oversee admission, assessment, and retention of prospective teachers.

16. Elementary and middle school teachers will receive special training in working with parents, reporting pupil progress, home visitation, community education, family services, and working with volunteers and aides.

In reviewing the assumptions just listed, two adages come to my mind: (a) "The more things change, the more they stay the same"; and (b) "Things change more in degree than they do in kind." It seems reasonable to assume, if this reflection is appropriate, that as new roles emerge they

Figure 2
COLLEGE-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR
WORK IN TRANSITION

Focusing a majority of time on on-campus preservice teacher education	Focusing a majority of time on off-campus preservice and inservice education and technical assistance
Conducting work primarily in a campus office and classroom	Conducting work both on the campus and at specific school sites
Serving as a knowledge-related expert--telling and directing	Serving as a knowledge developer, leader, and linker--learning and sharing
Owning (governing) the "turf" of the campus where services are provided	Serving as a "stranger"; not owning the "turf" where services are provided
Providing learning activities directed to the understanding of a discipline or theory	Providing learning activities directed to an understanding of a situation, using theory to understand practice
Working alone to carry out the responsibilities assigned (single actor model)	Working on a team in relation to agreed-upon goals (group players model)
Providing short-term or one-time workshops or courses	Providing continuing services over two to five years by contract
Providing services on a credit/hour accounting basis	Providing services from a program budget or a contract
Serving as an advocate for a discipline or a field of study	Serving as an advocate for a teacher, a principal, or a school
Serving as an observer/writer	Serving as an observer/helper/confronter
Providing suggestions relative to the general professional situation	Providing ideas applicable to the school situation
Providing instruction as the primary mode of delivery of services	Helping design various means for delivering services
Providing services at the convenience of providers	Providing services at the convenience of the acquirers of services
Providing inservice opportunities for individuals (teachers and principals)	Providing inservice opportunities for the whole faculty of the school
Providing services based on a statement of need	Providing services after a joint study of the situation and agreement on goals
Providing inservice activities on the college campus after school	Providing inservice and service activities on the school campus during regular hours
Viewing the individual teacher or principal as the client of inservice education	Viewing the individual and the organization in which he or she works as clients
Operating with calendars and schedules which are unrelated or conflict between the college and the public school	Operating with coordinated calendars and schedules
Using college facilities only for regular classes scheduled on an hourly basis	Using some college facilities for inservice retreats, workshops, and conferences scheduled on a daily or weekly basis
Offering preservice and inservice programs which seem to ignore the role of parents and the neighborhood in the education of children	Offering programs which enlist the participation of parents and friends in the work of the school
Offering preservice programs which are general and theoretical on campus rather than practical off campus	Offering preservice programs which are practical and theoretical both on and off campus
Having intern supervisors selected by the principal and approved by the college	Having intern supervisors selected by the organized profession in cooperation with the principal and the college

will carry on the qualities of the old, preserving those elements which have merit and which continue to serve and provide satisfaction.

A useful way to contrast the past or present with the future is to establish, through description, two "ideal types" as though they were two ends of a multifaceted continuum. The term "ideal type" is a concept, borrowed from sociology, that suggests one may logically put all the descriptions of a hypothetical state (or set of circumstances) together and treat the conglomerate as though it were an idea--an "ideal type." With establishment of two ideal types as two ends of a continuum, it can be hypothesized that in reality, at any one moment in time, the situation can be analyzed in relation to some point on that continuum. Figure 2 presents a "From-To" continuum using this convenient device for describing college-based teacher educator work in transition.

EMERGING ROLES

Assuming that the preceding analysis of the work of the college-based teacher educator is reasonably accurate, what emerging roles seem credible? What roles will continue?

From this analysis of teacher education in transition, a number of separate roles which logically could be played by campus-based teacher educators in the not too distant future can be identified. These, of course, may be combined, or in some cases divided, so that what may be seen today as segments of roles might become full-fledged roles tomorrow. I have assumed that most of the roles listed will be present eventually in major colleges of education. I also have assumed that most of the small institutions now preparing teachers will choose to limit their work to the preparation of "pre-education" students, much as they now limit their medical training to pre-med and allied health and paraprofessional education. The reader should note, however, that many of the roles projected are not new; most professors of education who work effectively both off and on the campus have played parts of most of these roles at one time or another. It seems important to me, however, that attention be paid to all of the roles. The acceptance and assumption of these roles by people in existing colleges of education will be difficult unless there is conscious effort to support people willing to try them.

1. Instructor, instructional manager, diagnoser/prescriber
2. Advisor, preservice student advocate, group facilitator
3. Committee member, project team member, policy maker
4. Clinical supervisor, performance feedback provider
5. Linker, referrer, resources retriever
6. Writer, editor, correspondent
7. Instructional designer, materials developer
8. Curriculum designer, program developer
9. Demonstrator, modeler
10. Data collector, situation describer, documenter, needs assessor, data analyzer, program evaluator
11. Researcher, model builder
12. Professional counselor
13. Organizational consultant, communications consultant
14. Stranger, outside observer, applied anthropologist

15. Teacher advocate, principal advocate, friend at court
16. Team leader, project manager, contract administrator.

All of these roles require or are enhanced by qualities valued in higher education today: intelligence; alertness; breadth of interest; concern for humanity; ability to read, write, and speak with fluency; gentleness; good humor; intellectual honesty; concern for excellence. Some of the roles being projected may seem more attractive to some members of a faculty than to others, perhaps because of differences in experience, cognitive style, or personality. It is hypothesized, however, that teams will be formed to fulfill preservice and inservice program commitments as well as college/school contracts. Persons with differing role preferences and skills will be on the same team, so that each person can make a unique contribution to the work. It is further hypothesized that not all of the roles necessarily will be drawn only from what is now considered the regular college of education faculty. Some roles may be played by arts and sciences faculty, some by classroom teachers on leave from their public or private school classrooms.

1. Instructor, Instructional Manager, Diagnoser/Prescriber

In the minds of many people, this is what the typical college-based teacher educator role should be today. The role requires the ability to assess the needs of individual students; prescribe appropriate alternative instructional experiences; read, digest, and synthesize materials; organize concepts into some logical or psychological order; present the materials effectively and efficiently; and assess learning outcomes reliably. The instructor should be able to manage the learning environments for students, including the use of instructional technology.

It is assumed that the instructional manager in the future will have many more "packaged" technological options available. For example, much of preservice teacher education should consist of concept and professional language development--helping the prospective teacher to use language accurately in order to go about the diagnosis and description of learning problems and needs with some precision. The beginning development of protocol materials has provided a glimpse into the future--having teacher education materials, developed for prespecified cognitive objectives, available to the instructional manager and/or teacher education student when readiness for their timely use is manifested.

Assessing, record keeping, and fulfilling institutional commitments to students will be assigned to persons having this role.

2. Advisor, Preservice Student Advocate, Group Facilitator

Students preparing to teach will continue to need someone to identify with for counseling and support. The role as described here calls for the advisor to help the student get the most out of preservice experiences. The advisor will become personally acquainted with the student and with his/her academic record, and help that student become part of a small learning community (10-15 others also learning about teaching). The advisor and the group should create and provide the psychological support system needed for professional development and growth. The advisor serves as the key link between the student and the college of education, negotiating and redefining commitments as required.

It has been my experience that as teacher education programs have become more individualized and more competency-based (wherein students are required to display their skills openly in front of peers), most students have the need to identify with and belong to a group which cares for them. Such groups should include students at varying points in the preservice program so that they can help one another move through the requirements of the program. The psychological climate and the processes used by the advisor (facilitator) should support the purpose of the group--helping students to become professional teachers.

3. Committee Member, Project Team Member, Policy Maker

The role of committee member is familiar to most college-based teacher educators. On some campuses, much of the management and operational decision making is carried forward by committees. Curriculum work in both schools and colleges typically is accomplished through committees. The future, as I see it, will call for more rather than less committee activity--which means, of course, that committees and project teams will have to become more efficient and effective. For this to occur, new or different time schedules may need to be created, so that committee or team meetings can be held without operation conflicts.

In addition to the human relations skills required of competent committee members, college-based teacher educators will need to be aware of state law, university and public school regulations, contractual agreements, and organizational norms and customs of the institutions involved in programs, and be appreciative of differences and protocol.

The typical college-based teacher educator may: (a) serve on an instructional or advisory committee (see previously described roles), (b) be a member of a Teacher Center Council representing the college, and (c) be a member of a college/school contract team, all at the same time. Normally, in addition to a primary role, the college-based teacher educator will serve on two other committees. Committee work necessarily will be considered part of the workload of a faculty member.

4. Clinical Supervisor, Performance Feedback Provider

Most colleges of education now have people assigned to the supervision of student teachers and interns. In some cases, such supervision is done systematically and clinically. The competent clinical supervisor negotiates with the client about what will be observed (including when, where, why, and how), and then systematically carries out a data collection process so that the client may receive pertinent and timely feedback about his or her performance.

In addition to carrying out the role of clinical supervisor, college-based teacher educators will work closely with cooperating teachers in the field. The competencies associated with this role of cooperating teacher eventually will be expected of all teachers who have continuing certification. More and more clinical supervision in inservice education will be done by peers, serving as a means both for needs assessment and for individual, professional staff development. The college-based teacher educator playing this role is expected to model good clinical supervision and to induct new teachers into the acquisition of peer panel, staff improvement norms.

The achievement of continuing, career-long staff development programs will require the establishment of agreed-upon processes of clinical supervision among colleges of education, the organized profession, and school organizations.

College-based clinical supervisors will need to work closely with specialized professional organizations as well as the organized profession in providing workshops for improving skills in clinical supervision and performance feedback.

5. Linker, Referrer, Resources Retriever

Recent dissemination and diffusion literature reveals that the linker role is a key one in the diffusion and adoption of new ideas or materials into a school. The linker should be able to help a school with an identified problem or concern by getting it in touch with persons who have expertise or resources pertinent to the school's problem and quickly available to the school. This person should be capable of helping the school faculty define its own problems; have extensive knowledge of human resources available within the region, both in colleges and schools; and be aware of ways to acquire human and material resources. Also, the linker needs direct access to and the ability to use information retrieval systems which make available the findings from research and development literature.

The linker should maintain continuing contact with assigned area schools and with those sources of help and assistance available to these schools; for example, the state department of education, the teacher education center, other colleges and universities. As the title of the role implies, linkers should be sensitive to both the changing needs of schools and the availability of ideas, materials, and expertise within the region.

As this role becomes clearer and more widely accepted, persons carrying out the linker role will become more and more valuable to the organizations with which they link. As a consequence, these people will be upwardly mobile, assuming greater managerial authority and responsibility. A regular inservice education program for identifying and training college-based teacher educators to play the linker role will be needed. It may be that such training will become part of the induction of new faculty members in colleges of education.

The success of linkers lies in their ability to develop trust between themselves and the schools with which they link. Linking assignments, therefore, should be made carefully and should persist over two- to five-year time periods. This role should be part of any long-term college/school contract.

6. Writer, Editor, Correspondent

All college-based teacher educators will be expected to write about their work and their professional concerns. Some, however, will be given the task to write for publication--news media, professional journals, newsletters, institutional memoranda--describing/reporting on plans, programs, and achievements with respect to college of education preservice, inservice, and contractual agreements and commitments. Public knowledge of activities is essential to continuing public support. As a consequence,

people inside publicly supported organizations must be given the correspondent's role. Persons playing this role will need to maintain liaison with the news media and educational publishers, as well as other persons in the college who are working on projects or programs.

7. Instructional Designer, Materials Developer

As instructional materials have become more effective--more pertinent, more interesting, more self-instructing--and as more of inservice education is conducted by practicing teachers and administrators, then more instructional design and materials development work is/will be needed. The college campus is an ideal place for nurturing the instructional designer role.

Recent research on inservice education indicates that classroom teachers prefer to receive inservice education from other teachers who are working regularly with students in classrooms. Teaching responsibilities and loads prevent classroom teachers from having the time to design inservice modules or instructional materials for themselves, much less for others. Persons playing the instructional designer and materials developer role will help teachers and administrators design and pilot test materials and structured experiences for themselves and their organizations. Materials and instructional designs which prove effective can then be shared through linker networks.

Persons playing this role should be knowledgeable of adult learning psychology, linear and nonlinear instructional systems, cognitive style mapping, personality type indicators, instructional strategies, group process skills, assessment of instructional objectives, and evaluation. It also will be helpful if the instructional designer is familiar with the conditions and circumstances present in local school settings, so that ideas and materials can be practical and immediately applicable.

Instructional designers and materials developers will work with commercial publishers in producing new teaching materials such as textbooks, films, tapes, modules, and simulation games.

8. Curriculum Designer, Program Developer

Because of the growing realization that curriculum implementation is more a process of adaptation and creation at the school site, rather than the adoption of programs or curricula developed away from the site, more attention will be placed on the development of program or curriculum designs which are process oriented, giving options or choices at the building level. College-based teacher educators playing the curriculum designer role, working with persons playing the linker role, along with teams of people from schools or school districts, will help design curriculum programs which meet local and state needs.

Program developers also will need to work closely with data collectors (see Role 10) to be sure their planning is based on data found at the school site. As neighborhood schools reappear at the elementary level and magnet schools develop at the high school level, new curriculum programs will be needed. If these new programs are to be successful, teachers, students, and parents will have to share in the ownership of these programs. Curriculum designers and developers will be specialists in helping identify the various constituencies that have a stake in the local

curriculum design, helping the principal organize curriculum committees, making available the designs and programs which are operating elsewhere, assisting the principal with planning, and helping school building leaders get the new programs underway.

9. Demonstrator, Modeler

The role of demonstrator is not new to the college campus. In earlier times, most colleges of education had laboratory or demonstration schools wherein student and inservice teachers could observe "master" or effective teachers in action. For years, textbook companies have had field service representatives who would demonstrate the use of their particular sets of books or materials, both on campus and off. These demonstrators are still popular in building level inservice programs.

Although professors at colleges of education often do not enjoy reputations as great teachers, fortunately for students and most colleges there usually are two or three professors who do "practice what they preach." These professors often are in great demand. They enjoy excellent reputations with teachers working in the field because they can demonstrate what they are advocating by working with children ("live") in regular classrooms.

It is my contention that both children and adults learn as much through observing and working with a good role model as any other way. This is especially true in learning complex professional roles such as teaching.

Preservice and inservice programs should provide, to participants enrolled in them, models of excellence in teaching--people who can achieve results with students, people who can provide alternative strategies for carrying out a professional role. Quality and richness in instruction occur when teachers can perform their craft with apparent ease and finesse, adjusting their tactics to the situation as it unfolds, and creating new situations, if necessary, to stimulate students to learn.

10. Data Collector, Situation Describer, Documenter, Needs Assessor, Data Analyzer, Program Evaluator

This role has been and is being played by a few college of education professors in working with ESEA Title I and Title IV-C (formerly Title III) projects. In such cases, professors have worked with school district and project personnel, using both the data collected by the projects and data the professors have collected themselves, and have evaluated the achievements, strengths, and weaknesses of local programs. Such evaluations when carefully done have been very helpful in improving the quality of local programs.

If my predictions are correct, many more college-based teacher educators will serve in this role. As soon as every school in a state has a terminal on-line in a statewide electronic data processing system, with local data being reported through the terminals rather than by written reports, local school data will be available (in the public domain) to college-based teacher educators. The immediate availability of these data, along with data collected first-hand, will provide a rich opportunity for analysis and program assessment.

As technical assistance and inservice education become more long-term and situation specific, the data collector and analyzer role will become

more important to institutional/organizational improvement. Persons playing this role will have to be skillful in using non-obtrusive measures of situational data, and be familiar with new documentation techniques as well as the latest methods of program evaluation. The role requires competence with management information systems, tests and assessment systems, computer applications for education, and other means for monitoring complex educational and management programs. The data collector should work closely with the researcher so that their mutual interests are coordinated whenever possible.

11. Researcher, Model Builder

Most of the more reputable graduate colleges of education have had a few faculty members who have played the role of researcher and model builder. In the past two decades funds supporting this role have come largely from federal grants and private foundations. More recently, it has become increasingly difficult to find resources in either the public or private sectors for research and development in education.

Despite the current paucity of funds for research, the role of the researcher and model builder will be increasingly important in the future. The person in this role is concerned with trying to understand the nature of learning, teaching, coping, and problem solving; of relating what is known about problematical situations under study with other situations or models; of speculating about and making sense out of data which are available; of hypothesizing about cause and effect relationships; of creating new models for explaining educational phenomena; of conducting long-range studies using a variety of research techniques. Research of sufficient size and scope to understand the complexity of teaching is in its infancy. The development of computer technology, however, has provided new opportunities for research and model formulation.

12. Professional Counselor

The role envisioned here is one of providing personal and/or professional counseling services to teachers, principals, and other professional education workers. A few professional counselors are now being provided to teachers through union/association negotiated contracts in urban areas. It seems apparent that the problems associated with being a teacher or principal will not diminish in the near future. Persons playing the professional counselor role should have training in counseling, clinical psychology, and educational anthropology to be able to assist clients in relating positively to students and their own professional life space.

13. Organizational Consultant, Communications Consultant

There is a growing body of literature which supports the notion that many of the problems found in a school belong to the whole school and its supporting school system--that a particular problem cannot be resolved without changing many other subparts of the larger system. This literature views organizations as dynamic organisms, held together with norms, tradition, production goals, and so forth, and capable of learning how to do their work better or of changing their work as external conditions require

Although the research base supporting the establishment of this role is tenuous, non-educational organizations use organizational and communications consultants extensively, with apparent success.

As has been implied elsewhere, as we know more about schooling, the more we realize the importance of establishing good home/school relations, the importance of establishing a warm supportive climate for some and a challenging climate for others, the importance of promoting schools which are internally consistent in their expectations, and other such priorities. Organizational consultants, skilled at diagnosing organizational problems and helping school leaders learn how to manage and improve with change, will be increasingly needed as colleges and schools enter into long-term contracts (Schmuck and Miles, 1971).

It goes without saying that with greater involvement of college-based teacher educators in field settings, there will be a greater need for organizational and communications consultants to help resolve college/school problems of collaboration. New organizational forms will be required, new communications patterns realized.

14. Stranger, Outside Observer, Applied Anthropologist

Perhaps all college personnel working in schools should consider playing this role: the role of the stranger is important. Strangers view an encounter with a school as a new adventure, without a situational history, without an experiential bias about what will work and what will not. Strangers, even though not completely trusted, still can ask the simple and pertinent questions, the ones that ought to be asked. Strangers, by definition, have not been subverted or enculturated by the local society; they can, as a result, observe and record data not easily perceived by those who have been accepted and are "at home." Applied anthropologists are trained to observe and note verbal and nonverbal signs and symbols which give structure or meaning to social interactions. Perhaps more important, they are trained to monitor their own inner thoughts and feelings as they undergo the enculturation process, as they begin feeling less and less as strangers.

This writer believes that, as college-based teacher educators focus more and more of their attention on practitioner involvement in knowledge development or production, applied anthropological skills will become more important. Persons given this role should be highly skilled and should be left relatively free to consider the meaning of the social behavior taking place--interactions between all of the individuals in the school and those participating from the college. Attention to observations made by persons given this role could lead to: (a) the study and exposure of the "hidden" curriculums in schools and colleges, (b) the invention or development of new cultural events (school rituals and ceremonies) which support the purposes of the school, (c) the focusing of greater attention and study of the roles of teachers, principals, and outsiders on the life of the school, and (d) the improvement of inter-institutional collaboration in teacher education among colleges, schools, and professional organizations.

15. Teacher Advocate, Principal Advocate, Friend at Court

Professional organizations provide a political voice for teachers (and sometimes principals) in the discussions and decisions made at the school

board and state legislative levels of government. These organizations also have legal services available to assist teachers with litigation which can occur as a result of unfair or inept personnel management. Thus far, with their attention devoted to inter-organizational rivalry, professional organizations have not been able to serve as advocates for teachers or principals at the local school or community level.

In interviews with teachers about their situations, they report that they are working as hard as they can, but that they receive few intrinsic rewards for their efforts. It is difficult to see student progress from week to week, they report, because they are so busy trying to manage their classrooms, keeping students busy and quiet. Few, if any, people tell them they are doing well; even parents seem not to appreciate their efforts. Although the professional organizations argue for reduced class size as funds are being allocated at the legislative level, at the local school district level a compromise must always be struck between raises in salary to offset inflation and reductions in class size. Gradually, therefore, class size seems to continue to increase.

A similar but perhaps less understood set of circumstances exists for the principal. With added responsibilities for accountability, staff evaluation, regular class placement for many handicapped students, and multicultural education, and with no real representation at the bargaining table, the principal is in a political "no man's land." As states move to decentralize decision making and management to the school site, the principal will be even more vulnerable to public criticism.

Thus it is that few people seem to know and appreciate what teachers and principals face each day. If these conditions are to be improved, college-based teacher educators will need to assume the role of teacher advocate, principal advocate, or friend at court. The best interests of colleges of education are served when classroom teachers and principals see themselves and their efforts positively and optimistically--when they see the college of education faculty interested and willing to work for improved educational effectiveness for all concerned.

16. Team Leader, Project Manager, Contract Administrator

If college-based teacher educators are to be able to play the aforementioned roles, the operational management of colleges must change. As projected earlier, most on-campus and off-campus activities will be conducted by teams of professors and affiliated students. In preservice programs, faculty and students will have to be able to work effectively in more than one school site. In inservice education and in providing educational services to schools, faculty and students will need to be able to present a coordinated effort in carrying out contractual agreements. In either case, someone on the faculty team will have to be in charge and be given the authority and responsibility for getting the work done. This role is the key to the college's future success: whether colleges can adjust to new learning opportunities is dependent on team leadership or project management.

The project team leader, to be successful, will need to be a person who is a good manager--who knows what he or she is doing, clarifies the team's objectives, communicates effectively, coordinates with others, uses time efficiently, and so forth. The leader will need secretarial and clerical support and easy means for communicating with the college's management

structure. In addition, time arrangements will have to be altered so that teams working in the field on school/college contracts can spend the necessary time together and with their school clients to: (a) study the circumstances and problems existing at the school site, (b) develop trust and legitimacy for working at the site, and (c) work through possible misunderstandings or interpersonal perceptions among members of the team, their students, and the clients. Similarly, teams working primarily in preservice programs will have to schedule time so that they and their students can get to know one another, plan and schedule experiences on and off campus, plan and schedule assessments which demonstrate required and elective competencies, and maintain and report progress regarding the team's work schedule.

Much has been written about team and project management. Obviously, college of education personnel serving as good team leaders will be in demand both in universities and in industry. It would appear that it may be to the advantage of colleges of education to work closely with industry in team leader/team management training. Work as a college professor is no longer as unique as it may seem. Scholarship wherever it occurs requires private time and space. Good teams whenever they occur adjust to and for the individual talents and styles of their members. Work accomplishment by teams almost always comes from honest effort, self-discipline, and interpersonal caring. The good team leader fosters all of these qualities in the team and, in addition, is able to tolerate ambiguity while negotiating unambiguous agreements with college or school district administrators.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of this chapter has been to describe the situation facing college-based teacher educators in the late 1970s, and to project into the future possible emerging roles. In examining the real world of colleges of education, one can become discouraged and anxious about the future--until one remembers that the "flip side" of every problem is an opportunity.

For the first time in my lifetime we have a stable, educated school staff. For the first time colleges of education have the time and resources to try to improve professional practice. For the first time it may be possible to obtain funds for the inservice education of college of education faculty members so that they can assume new roles with dignity. For the first time colleges of education can become truly professional schools, with college-based faculty working side by side with practitioners in the field to create and develop a higher level of professional scholarship and professional knowledge. Together there is hope. Together there is strength.

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The major thesis of this monograph is that changing conditions in society and education call for new professional roles in teacher education. Already evident are major personnel changes in schools, resulting from increased activity on the part of school districts to provide inservice education for their professional personnel: new professional roles for teacher educators already are beginning to emerge. W. Robert Houston examines these developments in depth in the next chapter.

Chapter III

EMERGING ROLES OF THE SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR

W. Robert Houston

During the past few years, schools have begun to invest more heavily in the inservice education of their professional personnel, due in part to decreased turnover of personnel and in part to greater resources for such programs. Within this context, Chapter III seeks to explore the roles of those persons responsible for staff development. On the basis of past and present practices, nine theses which suggest future directions for improving the competence of staff developers in schools will be proposed.

A variety of generic names have been accorded persons involved with professional education. In the late 1960s, the federally-funded TTT program introduced teachers (T), trainers of teachers (TT), and trainers of teacher trainers (TTT). A wide range of titles have been used in schools and intermediate units, including:

Advisor
Clinical Coordinator
Continued Training Consultant
Counselor
Curriculum Consultant
Dean of Instruction
Department Chairperson
Director of Management Academy
Dissemination Coordinator
Facilitator
Inservice Coordinator
Instructional Supervisor
Intern Consultant
Open School Trainer
Process Consultant
Professional Tutor
Program Development Specialist
Resource Teacher
Staff Change Agent
Staff Coordinator
Staff Development Specialist
Supervisor of Student Teachers
Teacher Tutor
Team Leader
Trainer
Training Specialist
Visiting Tutor

In this chapter, those persons who are based in schools and who are concerned with the development of education personnel will be referred to as school-based teacher educators (SBTEs).[9]

SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER EDUCATOR

The school-based teacher educator is a professional who has responsibility for either preservice, inservice, or continuing teacher education and whose primary base of operations is in the elementary or the secondary school. This definition, taken from the SBTE Project, is broad enough to encompass the varied job descriptions of teacher educators located in

9 This title was instituted in a two-year project which explored roles, competencies, preparation, and credentialing of teacher educators working within the school itself. For further information, see: W. R. Houston, J. M. Cooper, and A. R. Warner. School-Based Teacher Educator Project: Report of First-Year Activities, 1975-1976, and Report of Second-Year Activities, 1976-1977. Houston, Texas: University of Houston College of Education, 1976 and 1977. ED 131 041; ED 142 545

schools, yet it permits precise subclassifications based on specific roles. "Teacher" and "education personnel" are used interchangeably in this chapter to refer not only to those with direct instructional responsibility to children and youth (for example, classroom teachers) but also to counselors, administrators, and other professionals in education.

Each of the SBTE roles "has a number of similar functions: The SBTE (a) interacts with other persons about professional performance; (b) demonstrates a knowledge of professional practices; and (c) concurrently demonstrates, as a teacher, the behaviors he or she is training others to perform. The part-time SBTE is a teacher of students and a teacher of teachers, whereas the full-time SBTE is primarily associated with training teachers" (Houston et al., 1976, p. 2). Drawing on two dimensions, inservice/preservice and part-time/full-time, Figure 3 identifies four types of SBTE roles (Johnson et al., 1976, p. 12).

The division between inservice and preservice teacher education diminishes yearly. SBTEs regularly are assigned to both, while schools and colleges are making administrative arrangements for inter-institutional collaboration. Preservice programs draw more heavily on schools as sites for training than ever before, and on part-time SBTEs for the training. Yet the real challenge is not with inexperienced pre-professionals but with those already teaching.

Because inservice education of teachers is integrally related to SBTE roles, it is difficult to separate the two. Several writers (for example, Joyce, Howey, Yarger, and Edelfelt) have explored the theory, range of practices, and potential for inservice education; however, almost nothing has been written about the persons who are responsible for staff development. This chapter focuses on these professionals, considering their present practices and future potential. In one view, focusing on SBTEs is a broader perspective than inservice education, for inservice is but one of several strategies (such as personal counseling, teaming) for improving practice in schools. In an alternative view, the SBTE perspective is more narrow, for SBTEs are but one component in inservice education. Whichever perspective one chooses, the two are complex, shifting, interactive, and interrelated with each other and with a broader array of movements.

Figure 3
ROLES OF SCHOOL-BASED TEACHER EDUCATORS

	Part-Time	Full-Time
PRESERVICE	Supervising Teacher of Student Teachers British Tutor	Intern Consultant Clinical Consultant University Supervisor
INSERVICE	Team Leader Department Chairperson Principal Staff Coordinator Professional Tutor	Coordinator Consultant Resource Teacher Instructional Supervisor Curriculum Supervisor

Context for SBTE Roles

Exploring the roles of SBTE and considering emerging practices without placing them in perspective within their educational, social, and cultural frames would distort rather than clarify. Emerging professional roles reflect changes occurring in schools, educational systems, and society. No person is an island--no teacher, no teacher of teachers. Each is affected in varying degrees by worldwide educational trends and movements. More directly, teachers are influenced by the organizations in which they work, the persons with whom they interact, and the programs and processes they advocate be included in the curriculum.

Systems theorists of the past decade have helped educators understand the complex phenomena and interactions through models and formulae that simplify educational programs and processes. They have demonstrated what thoughtful observers always knew: that each institution (a classroom, a school, a school district, a state educational system) has certain distinguishing characteristics. These characteristics develop over time in response to perceived missions, power alignments both inside and outside the system, responsiveness to supra-systems, and effectiveness of operation.

Since interdependence and system are crucial aspects of organized education, it is necessary to look at SBTE roles in context. Three elements in systems directly influence the roles of SBTEs: missions or programs of the system, organization of the system, and persons involved in the system.

Over the years, either by design or by default, schools have been assigned certain missions by society. The schools expanded the number of students served by increasing the percent of eligible school-age children attending school, by extending the mandatory age for school attendance, by more effectively serving students with special problems, by lengthening the school year, and by including adults in evening schools. The school's curriculum has become packed with an increasing array of courses and concepts, including values education, process-oriented science programs, and drug education. Recently, counter movements have attempted to weed out non-essentials ("Back to the Basics").

Similarly, the organization of the school continues to change as new concepts are introduced. The open classroom, team teaching, individualized instruction, learning resource centers, and extended-day programs are illustrative of such trends. The support staff for on-line teachers has increased in many districts to include resource teachers, diagnosticians, psychologists, and teacher aides. Parents and community agencies have become more involved in school affairs, making more complex the communication and decisioning processes.

Modifications in school mission, programs, and organization occur with amazing rapidity in today's school. School personnel are caught up in the complex and often bewildering array of apparently unending changes.

The roles of SBTEs are deeply affected by the specific goals of schools in which they work, the people with whom they work, and the programs with which they are concerned. Changes in any one of these areas influence the SBTE's role. And changes in SBTE roles influence, in turn, the other segments of the school. While this chapter focuses specifically on SBTEs, it must be recognized that they are affected by and responsive to other elements in the system.

The first thesis of this chapter, then, is:

> *School-based teacher educator roles can be understood best when set in their societal and educational contexts.*

Stability and Change

In science fiction, things are not always what they appear to be: a beautiful lady is actually a mechanical robot, a fire is an illusion, and creatures from far-off planets change form before your very eyes. What appears real isn't, and what seems to be faked is actually real. The parallel with educational innovations is all too striking. Many of the "new" concepts and roles are only new names and titles for the same old objectives, functions, and relationships. In examining emerging SBTE roles, one must ferret out that which is new from that which remains the same--not an easy task.

In a series of propositions, Joyce (1976a, p. 35) cogently made the case that schools and inservice programs are stability oriented. Noting that schools are designed to be self-perpetuating, he stated that "The present structure of the school is stabilizing in nature and screens out rapid change, including changes which could be deleterious and those which could be beneficial." Teaching, too, he pointed out, "is a normative, bureaucratic activity, highly stable in its character, . . . and staff development is stability oriented" (Joyce, 1976a, pp. 35-36). The result is that schools across the country are remarkably homogeneous; personnel are prepared in a fashion that assures continuity and stability.

The extension of this argument is that SBTEs are often stability oriented. They are trained in the system and demonstrate through practice the values of the system. They are selected because they can transmit the school culture to other teachers and do not create systems-related problems; they do not "rock the boat." Revolutionaries are seldom appointed by the bureaucracy to train teachers. Thus, trainers of teachers are often the most stable of professional groups. While professing to ferment change and improve practice, they often diligently protect the status quo by shaping teacher behavior in the mold of tradition.

In our recent studies of changing SBTE roles, this has been the most consistent and general conclusion. Names of roles change, administrators and college professors describe roles in new and vibrant terms, but the undergirding practice of those holding the SBTE offices remains virtually unaltered.

This past summer, I observed a rally at noon in a Washington, D.C., park. The rally was sponsored by one of the most radical religious groups in the country today, yet this was not evident that warm, sunny noon. The American flag was displayed everywhere, while a series of large canvas banners carried phrases like "God Bless America," "United We Stand," and "God and Country Forever." A freshly scrubbed band played John Philip Sousa marches while uniformed "Minute Men" handed out literature. Seven young ladies wore bonnets and long white dresses trimmed in blue, with high necks and long sleeves. Here was radical change using the traditional symbols of the Establishment to further its goals.

Across town from the square where I stood, bureaucrats were devising new names and new acronyms for the same old ideas and programs. With new

labels and slogans, they promised the people innovation and change; but they delivered essentially the same substance. Juxtaposing these two illustrations suggests that radical change often appears conservative, while change in institutional practice is often more illusionary than real.

Emerging professional roles in school-based teacher education may have some of the cast of science fiction: they appear to be changing in response to societal and educational needs, yet in all too many cases they simply reflect an attempt to mask the status quo with surface innovation.

The second thesis of this chapter, then, is:

Emerging SBTE roles that depart from tradition are often more illusionary than real.

ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The SBTE is generally conceived as tending toward one of two different purposes in the school organization. In the first concept, the SBTE is responsible primarily to the administration of the school district; while in the second, the SBTE is primarily responsible to teachers and fellow professionals. The two concepts lead to widely different processes, responsibilities, and roles.

Basic to each conception is the question of SBTE authority and influence. From whom or what does the SBTE derive authority? And whom is the SBTE attempting to influence?

In one view, the authority of the SBTE is derived through administrative channels. The SBTE is accountable to the administration, and acts as its agent in working with teachers and other professionals. The basic criterion of SBTE success in the administrative authority position is the extent to which teachers effectively deliver the school program.

In a contrasting position, professional development, teachers are assumed to be professionals, and as such are responsible for their own actions. With this change in the focus of responsibility, the roles of the SBTE shift considerably. The SBTE becomes helper and resource, and the criterion of success is congruence of behavior with the expectations of the teacher for the SBTE. While in the administrative authority position the teacher is responsible to the SBTE, in the professional development view both persons are professional colleagues on an equal basis, with joint responsibility for effective instruction.

The professional development position is somewhat like those espoused by Combs (1965), Rogers (1965), and Maslow (1968), who view the teacher primarily as a human being attempting self-actualization and as one whose primary goal is to help students develop fully-functioning personalities. The SBTE who "emphasizes the uniqueness of the child and the importance of his emotionality must do the same for the teacher. His education, too, has to be a process of freeing his personality and helping to develop himself on his own terms. . . . Helping teachers or consultants can . . . help the teacher reflect on himself, clarify his goals, and select the ways to achieve them which best fit his personality. The role of the consultant, however, would not be to direct the teacher's inservice education but to help him to clarify the alternatives and ways of reaching them" (Nicholson and Joyce, 1976, pp. 59, 62).

O'Keefe (1974), reflecting the more politically-oriented views of the National Education Association, expressed the rationale for the professional development position.

> The philosophy behind the teacher-centered inservice teacher education, as defined by the NEA, is to serve the needs of teachers so that the teacher can respond effectively to the educational demands of the students and society. To do this, the teachers must have sufficient control over their own training, development, and professional performance to make each school an optimum operation in its time and place.

Katz and her colleagues developed the advisory approach to inservice education where the role of advisor reflects the professional development position for SBTEs. They set forth four SBTE strategies which describe this operational style:

1. Providing inservice assistance to teachers only when such assistance has been requested by them

2. Providing assistance in terms of the requester's own goals, objectives, and needs

3. Providing such assistance in situ rather than in courses, institutes, or seminars

4. Providing assistance in such a way as to increase the likelihood that teachers become more self-helpful and independent rather than helpless and dependent (Katz et al., 1974, p. 154).

The roles and responsibilities of SBTEs, then, are dependent in part upon whether they are perceived primarily as agents of administrative authority or of professional development. It is in the relationship of the SBTE both to school administration and to teachers that the nuances of role and responsibility are determined. Whichever of the two positions predominates determines the central features of the interactions. In Figure 4, the central comparisons between the two postures are distinguished. These are set forth as scales rather than as discrete measures since in practice neither position is entirely assumed.

Several of the scales defining the two positions in Figure 4 have been discussed previously. In the third scale, the SBTE, an agent of the administration, provides resources and service which may lead to more effective instruction; the choices open to the SBTE are limited and the method for delivering them direct. This position compares with one in which SBTEs perceive their roles as being supportive of the professional teacher and where any interaction is designed to foster greater vision, knowledge, and skills by the teacher. Thus, the SBTE works toward greater conceptual clarity as the objective of instruction. With the first stance, SBTEs inform; with the second they persuade.

The fifth scale in the model pertains to the allocation of rewards. In the administrative authority model, SBTEs assume the dominant role in relationships. They control the rewards, or at least are perceived by teachers as controlling them; SBTEs seek compliance by teachers for school

Figure 4
DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CONCEPTS OF SBTE

SCALES	ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
1. Basis for establishing SBTE roles	Responsibility for instruction resides in school district	Responsibility for instruction resides in individual teacher
2. Source of SBTE power	Authority of school administration	Credibility of SBTE with teacher
3. Primary modus operandi	Direct and with limited choices	Interactive to restructure teacher's means/ends conceptual framework
4. Relationship	SBTE dominant	Collegial; mutual identification
5. Reward structure	Teacher perceives SBTE as controlling rewards	Interdependent reward structure
6. Conditions for relationship	Surveillance by SBTE	Assistance by SBTE
7. Consequences for teacher	Compliance	Internalization

district-adopted policies and procedures. In the professional development model, by contrast, SBTEs assume collegial relationships with fellow professionals where rewards flow between the two, and SBTEs seek to support teachers' internalization of professional behavior that is congruent with their own value systems.

Thus the third thesis is:

> *The roles and responsibilities of SBTEs depend on their perceived purposes by school administration and teachers as agents either of administrative authority or of professional development.*

Reality lies somewhere between the two extremes. To ignore the importance of a teacher's responsibility as a professional is irrational; but it is equally foolish to assume that the only valid basis for inservice education is self-perception. Designed interaction between these two basic positions is vital to continued development of educational expertise.

EXTENSIVENESS AND INTERRELATIONS

It is difficult to determine even the approximate number of SBTEs in this country. Titles for the position vary from school district to school district, and persons with the same title may have radically different roles. Supervisors in one district may be line officers with administrative responsibilities; in another they may be in staff positions. Team leaders, consultants, assistant superintendents, and others with potential SBTE titles may or may not have SBTE responsibilities.

Joyce and his associates, as part of an extensive study of inservice education in the United States, estimated that "there may be as many as a quarter of a million persons in the United States who engage as instructors in some form of ISTE (inservice teacher education) activity--this is about one instructor for every eight teachers" (Joyce et al., 1976b, p. 2). These estimates generally are supported by analysis of the number of SBTEs in selected school districts.

The staffing patterns for a city school district--the Dallas (Texas) Independent School District--and for a county school system--the Kanawha County (West Virginia) School System--are described here. The professional staff of the Dallas district numbers approximately 7,000. Assistant Superintendent Joe M. Pitts provided data on the approximate number of persons with responsibility for staff development, inservice, and preservice education in the district (see Figure 5).

Figure 5
SBTE ROLES IN DALLAS (TEXAS) SCHOOLS

	TITLE	NUMBER OF PERSONS IN ROLE	FULL- OR PART-TIME
1.	Assistant Superintendent	5	Full
2.	Deputy Associate Superintendent	4	Full
3.	Director, Management Academy	1	Full
4.	Director, Instruction	17	Full
5.	Assistant Director, Instruction	15	Full
6.	Facilitators/ Coordinators/ Others	77	Full
7.	Resource Teachers	16	Full
8.	Deans of Instruction	23	Full
9.	Building Resource Teachers	250	Full
10.	Building Department Heads	301	Part

A total of 408 persons, over six percent of the professional staff, were assigned full-time as SBTEs in Dallas, and 301 others had part-time responsibilities. These figures do not include persons who acted as instructors for one or more inservice programs or as informal, non-assigned SBTEs. Note also the range of responsibilities included in the list--from Assistant Superintendent and Director of the Management Academy to Building Resource Teachers.

Pitts was asked several questions about these roles: Which are new or recent? Why were they instituted? What problems or promise led to their being instituted? His response provides insight into the evolution of the SBTE and the perspective of school administrators directing such change efforts.

> Most of the central office SBTE positions have existed for several years. The Director of the Management Academy is recent (organized three years ago) and came about as a result of the need to provide relevant training programs for practicing and prospective leaders. The traditional university training seemed lacking in view of the myriad challenges found in a rapidly changing, highly technological urban environment. The recent nation-wide emphasis on "getting back to the basics" coupled with a concern about academic achievement caused the District to significantly increase and upgrade central office instructional roles. During the past three years the building level positions of Dean of Instruction and Resource Teacher were created in response to the effort to improve student achievement in the Basic Skills areas. Department heads in some instances in the past had only been perfunctory positions, sometimes self-appointed and functioning during conference periods. The District now provides released time for these positions and is carefully selecting the personnel.

Edelfelt (1977a) suggested that such positions should be encouraged, with respect not only to schools and universities but to other educational institutions. "Some of these should be professionals to staff new institutions like teacher centers and training complexes. Others could be on the order of what the British call advisors. Perhaps some new types need to be created to meet American demands, such as inservice counselors for teachers and other personnel."

One educational institution which is increasing the size of its staff is the intermediate school unit (county school districts, regional service centers, educational consortia, educational centers). The Kanawha County (West Virginia) School System serves 2,500 professional educators. Mrs. Kathryn Maddox listed SBTE roles in the Kanawha County School System, as shown in Figure 6.

Based on these data and observations of school district support staff across the country, the fourth thesis is posed:

The number of SBTEs is large and probably expanding.

The twelve roles listed in Figure 6 reflect three organizational strands in Kanawha County: Kanawha County School System (titles 1-7 in Figure 6), Multi-Institutional Teacher Education Center (titles 8-10), and Regional Education Service Agency, Region III (titles 11 and 12). The

Figure 6
SBTE ROLES IN KANAWHA COUNTY SCHOOLS, WEST VIRGINIA

	TITLE	NUMBER OF PERSONS IN ROLE	FULL- OR PART-TIME
1.	Inservice Coordinator	1	Full
2.	Deputy Superintendent	1	Full
3.	Assistant Superintendent	3	Full
4.	Specialists	20	Full
5.	Tutorial Coordinator	1	Part
6.	Community Education Director	1	Full
7.	ITV Coordinator	1	Full
8.	Director of Teacher Education Center (MITEC)	1	Full
9.	Coordinator of Teacher Education Center	1	Full
10.	School-Based Teacher Education Coordinator	20	Part
11.	Director of Regional Educational Service Agency	1	Full
12.	Coordinators	4	Full

interaction of these three agencies, with similar and overlapping responsibilities--not only with each other, but with colleges and universities serving the area, and with local school systems--illustrates the complex organization of education institutions in this country.

Because Dallas is a large district which can provide almost all its own services, Dallas schools experience to a lesser extent the same overlapping responsibilities. However, it is possible that SBTEs from the Regional Education Service Center, Dallas County Board of Education, Consortium D, Dallas Teacher Center, and eight universities could be available to assist a particular teacher.

The fifth thesis is:

> *SBTEs are affiliated with an array of local, regional, and state agencies, all providing similar services to the same population.*

SBTE ACTIVITIES AND COMPETENCIES

The activities SBTEs engage in are varied, and often unique to the context in which they are held. Thus the competencies needed by persons performing those activities vary. Illustrative activities and competencies are considered in this section.

Activities of SBTEs

SBTEs in a one-year project in Urbana (Illinois) School District #1160 engaged in the following activities:

1. Locating, identifying, and preparing instructional materials to meet specific instructional needs
2. Assisting teachers with formulating plans for more effective room arrangements for learning centers, and for interest centers
3. Discussing and thinking through problems of managing classroom behavior, how to develop class rules, how to help specific individual children
4. Providing moral support and being generally supportive, sharing with teachers the setbacks and difficulties they experienced as teachers themselves
5. Alerting teachers to available resources to help them with instruction
6. Relating information about the good and successful practices of one teacher to another and vice versa
7. Giving informative feedback from their observations of the classroom activity
8. Demonstrating (or modeling) methods and techniques of teaching
9. Helping teachers to think through alternative methods and approaches to teaching specific skills and content (Katz et al., 1974, pp. 154-55).

Meyen and his associates developed an SBTE role, the curriculum consultant, who translated educational concepts for exceptional children into practices for regular classroom instructors. Their definition of that role provides a summary of expected activities:

> A curriculum consultant is . . . a person capable of: serving as a leader in the development of curriculum for special education programs; advising and aiding in decision making about curriculum for the total educational program as it influences education for exceptional children; providing leadership through inservice education; advising administrators on curriculum needs; aiding teachers' use of

resources and research; assisting teachers with instructional problems; providing indirect service to children (Meyen et al., 1971, p. 1).

Marilyn K. Odum, resource teacher in Fairfax County (Virginia) Public Schools, described her role as follows:

> The role of the resource teachers is emerging from that of providing remedial and diagnostic services, large group inservice meetings, and crisis management to that of providing "action inservice" in the classroom, whereby the resource teacher and classroom teacher focus on action rather than talk, and provide for all students in a highly effective manner. The role of the resource teacher becomes that of a facilitator of:
>
> - improved teaching strategies
> - improved organizational patterns
> - improved materials utilization
> - improved diagnostic, prescriptive, and evaluative procedures.
>
> Workshops for students provide the structure for interaction between resource and classroom teacher. The workshop format provides a nonthreatening environment in which the resource and classroom teachers plan to implement new materials, improve students' skills, and increase productive and creative thinking skills.
>
> After the classroom teacher selects a workshop topic, brief planning sessions are held in which the resource teacher outlines the philosophy of the workshop, the broad organizational structure, and alternatives for learning materials and activities. The classroom teacher selects specific materials and activities perceived as appropriate for the students, and assumes 50 percent of the responsibility by choosing half the leadership tasks. By this process, the classroom teacher takes ownership of the problem and has a vested interest in the success of the workshop.
>
> The workshop sessions last from two to ten days depending on the content; interaction among teachers and students centers on success for each student. During each 50-minute session, student tracking sheets provide a monitoring and adjustment system for both teachers and students.
>
> Following the workshop, the classroom and the resource teachers confer to evaluate the workshop and plan for continuation of the learnings (Odum, 1977).

Arlington (Virginia) Public Schools have extended inservice opportunities for teachers and the number of SBTEs through the Personnel Resource List. Hundreds of people whose expertise might be needed are listed under headings such as Art, Audiovisual and Telecommunications, Classroom Management, Teaching Techniques, Bilingual Education, Aesthetic Education, Photograms, Art Appreciation, Calligraphy, Poetry Writing, Silk Screen, Paper Sculpture, Stitchery, Visual Communication, and Nonverbal Communication. The primary role of these SBTEs is to provide inservice programs and consultant services for teachers requesting their specialized assistance. The roles are part-time, typically after school or on

Saturdays, with a small stipend paid by the school district. The services are not systematically delivered to teachers; the approach is "cafeteria style" and the extensiveness of involvement depends on self-perceived teacher needs.

All the roles described so far relate to inservice teachers and are basically facilitative and instructional in nature. The role of the director of a regional teacher center involves both preservice and inservice education as well as heavy administrative responsibilities. In this role, the director:

> Coordinates placement of all student teachers in the county, conducts training for preservice teachers, all supervising teachers, and facilitates coordination of staff development within the four counties of the Regional Education Service Agency. She also conducts needs assessment for new teachers within the four-county area and for supervising teachers annually. Special programs are offered for new teachers and supervising teachers in addition to the coordination of administrators' and teachers' staff development for the four counties (Maddox, 1977, p. 7).

DiTosto (1976), analyzing the responses of teacher education center coordinators in Maryland, identified several roles that coordinators perceived for themselves.

> The liaison person serves primarily as a link between school systems and the college/university. Persons holding this view stress public relations and open communication; they attempt to tie theory and practice together. They try to create a community-view both in the school and in the college; they represent the views of the school to the college and those of the college to the school. Since visibility is a key factor, they spend considerable time working with members of both the school and college faculties.
>
> The manager coordinates assignments and activities in the teacher center. The person assuming this role plans for center operation and sets up observations and situations conducive to developing the teaching styles of individual student teachers within paramters of the program.
>
> The teacher primarily bridges the gap between theory and practice. The vehicle for this is the biweekly seminar where discussions are centered on major topics of a practical nature, in personal/professional development.
>
> The supervisor shapes teacher behavior for improving classroom instruction. This is considered a major element in practicum experience; it is the opportunity for the SBTE to observe and provide feedback to student teachers through multiple short observations. Such low-key visitations are seen as changing behavior as a result of increased mutual respect, trust, and dedication to the task.
>
> The program developer builds the program by increasing the skills of personnel involved in it. In this role, the person

conducts systematic needs assessments of staff, then provides workshops, courses, and experiences to meet identified needs. Cooperating teachers are involved in videotaping, conferences on skill development, professional experiences in teacher education, and numerous other interaction activities beneficial to personal and professional development.

If findings from a limited study are generalizable to the larger population, concepts of what SBTEs should do and what occurs in actual practice are quite different. As part of our study of the school-based teacher educator (Houston, Cooper, and Warner, 1976, 1977), 19 persons whose full-time assignment was in an SBTE role were interviewed. Their titles differed and their school districts ranged in size from small suburban to large urban districts, but all were responsible for staff development.

The most astonishing conclusion from that study (Stell et al., 1976) was that staff developers don't develop staff. While teachers were listed by all as persons with whom they interacted, probes in the interviews found that this meant planning and organizing inservice, not conducting it. Individual teachers were assisted primarily when a problem was identified by administrators.

In most instances these SBTEs hesitated to observe classes except those of teachers new to the district. They worked with administrators and some teachers, attended meetings, and developed materials; they were busy, but their roles were reactive and passive. They had been assigned a wide range of responsibilities, but neither they nor their administrators had assessed their responsibilities and performance in comparison with their basic mission. For the most part, their responsibilities kept them out of the classroom and away from the very persons they were supposed to help.

The SBTEs controlled none of the rewards of the district. They had to prove themselves over and over again in situations where the teacher either was defensive (knowing the SBTE was there at the direction of the principal) or had a difficult problem. In either case, the odds for success were slim; and when success was achieved, the teachers perceived themselves as responsible. Failure, of course, was a shared result. In such situations, SBTEs turned more and more to "safe" activities, and these were not teacher-related. They shuffled paper, then complained of too many clerical tasks.

Competency Specifications

Several approaches to the identification of competencies have been delineated. The study just described was part of a comprehensive series of inputs to develop a set of competencies for SBTEs as part of the School-Based Teacher Educator Project (Houston, Cooper, and Warner, 1976, 1977). The processes employed in specifying SBTE competencies in that project are listed in chronological order to illustrate one approach:

1. A review of research and theoretical constructs related to the SBTE was completed.

2. Interviews were conducted with 19 persons in staff development roles.

3. The theoretical concept of clinical practice was studied through analysis of its application in four non-education fields.

4. An initial set of competency specifications was derived from the first three activities.

5. A national panel of 27 distinguished educators analyzed the list and made comments on the validity of competencies.

6. A detailed analysis of the national panel's reactions was made by the project staff, and a revised list drawn up.

7. A statewide task force of educators reviewed all work and refined the second draft of competency specifications.

8. The revised competency list was mailed to 300 Texas educators, who were to rate each statement in terms of its importance for both preservice and inservice SBTEs.

9. Participants at a statewide SBTE conference reviewed all these stages of competency development, then worked in small groups to define the final specifications for a competent SBTE.

The resulting set of 20 competency specifications assumed that an SBTE would be able to perform, as a teacher, the specified competencies as well as facilitate their performance by others. SBTEs:

1. Assist teachers to develop interpersonal skills and effective communication with students, colleagues, and school constituencies

2. Assist teachers to gather and utilize relevant data about school, classroom, and community environments

3. Assist teachers to understand and work effectively with different socioeconomic/ethnic/cultural groups

4. Assist teachers to translate knowledge of current educational research and development into instructional practices

5. Assist teachers to develop a personal teaching style consistent with their own philosophy

6. Assist teachers to develop their understanding of basic concepts and theories of the subjects they teach

7. Assist teachers to understand and use techniques and instruments designed to diagnose students' academic and social development needs

8. Assist teachers to design, develop, and maintain environments that facilitate learning

9. Assist teachers to develop instructional goals and objectives

10. Assist teachers to develop and/or adapt instructional programs and materials

11. Assist teachers to select and utilize various strategies and models of teaching, for example, concept development, inductive procedures, nondirective teaching

12. Assist teachers to design and implement personalized learning plans

13. Assist teachers to develop effective leadership skills

14. Assist teachers to understand and use effective techniques of classroom management

15. Assist teachers to evaluate instructional effectiveness by collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data on teacher and student behavior

16. Assist teachers to develop, implement, and assess continuing individual professional growth plans

17. Plan and conduct individual conferences with teachers

18. Recognize the existence of personal problems that affect a teacher's instructional effectiveness and initiate appropriate referral process

19. Demonstrate effective planning, organization, and management skills

20. Facilitate research studies on teaching and learning.

Meade (1971), in describing the optimal set of specifications for an SBTE, emphasized the artistry phase of professional education. The SBTE, in his view:

> . . . must know learning and teaching. Beyond this, he must be an expert diagnostician, able to assist teachers to assess their strengths and weaknesses. As a specialist in performance assessment, he must have the capacity to assist teachers to find the kind of teaching responsibilities for which they are best suited. For example, in a situation in which a teacher achieves poor results the specialist would be able either to assist the teacher to overcome his pedagogical deficiencies or to alter the teacher's assignments so that his talents were used more appropriately.
>
> The training specialist would be a bit of a heretic, at least to the extent that he would actively seek ways to unfetter inservice training from the traditions of the past. He would know, moreover, the expectations of students and parents and the pulse of the community in which he worked. And, above all, he would have the leadership to inspire those with whom he worked to teach somewhere near their optimal capacity. . . .

> Such a training specialist would have access to all the resources essential to effective retraining and would have a position of line authority. His chief function would be to insure an optimum "fit" between person and task, and to instill a sense of high aspiration and adequacy (Meade, 1971, pp. 221-22).

Huge (1977) postulated three characteristics that principals exhibit when they are effective SBTEs. First, they have personal knowledge of the strengths of all staff members and they organize activities around those strengths. Second, they invest time in assisting teachers to set job targets in relation to school goals and individual strengths. Third, they recognize that change is a difficult process and that each person goes through change at a different rate.

While each researcher and developer appears to be seeking generic competencies with the zeal of one searching for the Holy Grail, an analysis of the differences in the lists and the differences in roles previously discussed makes it apparent that no such basic set of skills and knowledge exists for the SBTE. In reviewing SBTE activities and competencies, the sixth thesis is evident:

> *No single set of activities or competencies is appropriate for all SBTEs; the sets are idiosyncratic to each setting and person.*

Teachers themselves are becoming more involved in teacher education as SBTEs. For too many years teachers were involved primarily as receivers of inservice education. Only those who opened their classrooms to student teachers and those describing their practices at inservice meetings could be considered SBTEs. That situation is shifting, and the rate of change will accelerate in the coming years.

Teacher organizations are demanding a greater role in decisions affecting the profession and its members. These demands are being considered on the state level through professional practices commissions and on the local level through greater teacher participation in the decision-making process. Maddox described the situation in Kanawha County, West Virginia: "Since 1970, an inservice coordinating council has been established; however, in 1977 the composition of this council for the first time will be composed of a majority of classroom teachers. Prior to this time, there have always been classroom teachers on the council but the majority of the members were from the central office staff."

Effective participation does not just happen. "Too often . . . teachers are awed and silent at professional meetings at which power figures from universities and state government are present. Teachers need opportunities in training to gain perspective, knowledge, and poise to deal with professional problems and decisions on a parity basis alongside their colleagues in other branches of the profession" (Edelfelt, 1977b, p. 46). Such training in the decision-making process, where coupled with training as teacher educators, leads to more effective practice. The seventh thesis set forth is:

> *There is an increasing emphasis on teacher involvement in decisions relative to staff development, including work as SBTEs.*

Perceived Effectiveness of Teachers as SBTEs

In recent years, several writers have advocated teachers as the most effective SBTEs. Rubin (1969, p. 9) noted that a "practicing teacher is the best possible trainer of teachers." Dillon (1976) explained the rationale: "Teachers feel that practicality and credibility are more easily assured if a fellow practitioner conducts the staff development activity." Edelfelt (1977c) described how such an SBTE teacher works with a colleague. One high school has "teacher advisors"--people who have distinguished themselves as teachers and who have demonstrated superior talents in working with other teachers on teaching problems and inservice education. Because they are colleagues, and other teachers feel comfortable in discussing their problems with them, teacher advisors are effective SBTEs.

In 1974, Lawrence reviewed 97 studies of inservice education in a monograph prepared for the Florida Department of Education. One of his conclusions is of interest here:

> School-based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of inservice activities tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs which are conducted by college or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers (Lawrence, 1974).

During 1975, Joyce and his associates interviewed over 1,000 educators from across the country concerning inservice education. Responses to the question, "Who should be trainers?" led to these conclusions:

> Over 20 percent preferred university personnel; about 20 percent preferred teachers; about 15 percent preferred consultants; and about 2 percent suggested LEA personnel including administrators and curriculum supervisors. . . . Teachers, spearheaded by their representatives, tended to mention themselves first, as reasonable candidates. . . . In no category of persons interviewed were local education agency administrators strongly considered as appropriate trainers of teachers. LEA administrators have the problem of representing the same establishment which evaluates teachers (Joyce et al., 1976c, p. 3).

Drawn from the conceptions and studies of inservice education, the eighth thesis is stated:

> *Teachers have credibility with their peers as SBTEs; they translate theories and concepts more specifically into classroom practice.*

NEEDED REVITALIZATION IN SBTES

"The education of teacher educators is largely ignored in the professional literature," stated the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching following a year-long study (Howsam, 1976, p. 105). From our brief survey of schools, it appears that it is also ignored in practice as well as theory.

Some progress in formal preparation for SBTEs is being made. Dr. Joseph Liggins, Assistant Superintendent for Staff Development of the Houston Independent School District, requires all SBTEs to participate in a month-long training session. Some of the areas included in their program are teaching adults, handling conflict, group process skills, communication skills training, and a review of teacher training modules. Maddox forecast more extensive human relations training for all personnel involved in staff development. Howey (1976, p. 23) recommended SBTEs be trained in organizational development, process consulting, and intervention, particularly in schools where there is considerable role and program restructuring.

Such formal preparation for SBTEs is needed not only because of the function they perform, but because of the persons selected as SBTEs. In the interaction of personnel and organization within an evolving social milieu, roles and responsibilities change and shift. Because the SBTE is so often the person who is responsive to the organization's needs and who rapidly learns to adapt to those needs, he or she is most vulnerable in a constantly-changing school process. The position of the SBTE in this regard is reflected in a social science principle enunciated by Bennis.

> Organizations require men to learn certain skills and techniques. These are reinforced through the variegated "socialization" procedures the organization uses to gain compliance. The good student learns his lesson well; the best student overlearns his lesson so well that his responses become rote (developing what Veblen called "trained incapacity"). The circumstances change, more and more rapidly, and our good students of yesterday become the misfits of tomorrow--the tragedy being that their punishment is caused by their folly of attempting to superimpose their hard-earned knowledge on an essentially new set of conditions (Bennis, 1961, p. 563).

A practical response to the SBTE in flux is to foster a changing cadre of SBTEs. This policy was implemented by an Illinois superintendent of schools who assigned supervisors for two-year periods. His rationale was that in the first two years the supervisors infused new blood into the system, implemented creative ideas, and reflected enthusiasm for teachers and their roles. After a two-year period, the supervisors tended to stabilize their practices and to be more concerned with maintaining the status quo than with implementing new programs.

Other districts require their staff development faculty to remain current by teaching. SBTEs in Arlington (Virginia) Public Schools must be in a classroom at least 13 days each year. Dallas has implemented a policy which mandates time in the field weekly and full-time return to teaching on a regular basis. Pitts described this process for maintaining relevancy and reality in Dallas with these words: "No more office lizards behind big desks with all the trappings--charging out to the school and saying, 'How are things going? If I can be of assistance, call me'; and scurrying back to the security of the office." Frey (1976, p. 54) pointed out that a major benefit of being an SBTE is the impact on the individual after returning to teaching. SBTEs are forced to reflect on practice when working with teachers and such analysis leads to greater awareness of teacher performance criteria and outcomes.

These illustrations reflect a trend which we state as our ninth thesis:

> *SBTEs maintain their competence through regular contact with schools and teaching, and with periodic full-time experience as a teacher.*

Some Limitations

As the trend toward greater involvement of SBTEs in the education of education professionals continues to accelerate, several caveats and limitations should be considered. First, the training of teachers is a vital undertaking and should be a major priority of the institution(s) assuming that responsibility. Schools have yet to view this as a major responsibility of theirs--the budget in staff development is small and often dependent upon outside funding through grants and projects. Schools have turned to colleges and intermediate school units for these services. Why?

The primary mission of schools is to educate children and youth; of secondary importance is the education of teachers, that might have impact on the primary mission; of tertiary importance is the education and improvement of expertise and services of trainers of teachers (SBTEs).

In my recent discussions with staff developers from across the country, all perceived that their school districts were placing greater emphasis on SBTEs and their training, and could quote quantitative data to support their claims (numbers of SBTEs, funds expended). Yet none of the superintendents interviewed drew the same conclusion about their districts when asked to consider major goals, activities, and accomplishments.

A second limitation is bound up in the persons selected as SBTEs. The trend toward inbreeding becomes a problem when the primary input to school districts comes from within the district. Schools tend to select their SBTEs from outstanding teachers practicing in the district, and rightly so. They have demonstrated their ability to teach effectively, they know district policies and community resources; thus, they should be in an advantageous position to help others. But this practice promotes stability and discourages new ideas in the system.

A third limitation is related to balance. Professional education is a blend of theoretical constructs and practical applications. One without the other produces a weak program. While colleges have been accused of emphasizing theory to the exclusion of practice, school-based programs too often emphasize only practical ideas, tricks, and activities that can be implemented simply, immediately, and with little effort. Since SBTEs are chosen typically from competent practicing teachers and are working with teachers who often press for easily implemented classroom ideas, SBTE inservice education programs tend to stress practical applications. Such practices may be adequate for a few years as SBTEs work with teachers who can integrate such practical ideas into a broader conceptual frame, but in the long run <u>such a consistent practice would be devastating to the profession</u>.

A fourth limitation is closely related to the third. When the primary training of teachers focuses on school district problems, the recommended practices tend to become local and parochial.

A fifth problem grows from the expanding cadre of SBTEs practicing the role. The "everyone can do it" trend will lead to poor practices and lack of confidence in the system.

Sixth, despite the extensive literature on inservice education and the people involved in staff development, amazingly little research has been conducted. Those studies which have focused on supervision or student teaching and cooperating teachers have tended to be short-term doctoral dissertations, limited in scope and unrelated to improvement of teacher practice or student outcomes.

Potential for the Future

Despite the potential limitations inherent in the SBTE, this increasingly important responsibility in teacher education promises to improve educational practice. The SBTE is not a singular job description, but multiple and tailored to individual school needs. Increasingly it may be directed toward working in individual schools rather than school districts, and the part-time SBTE/part-time teacher concept will become more prevalent.

For maximum impact, SBTEs must recognize their own limitations and be willing to draw on other resources for support. The in-depth, specialized expertise found in colleges and universities could be one such viable source. Such a concept of inter-institutional teaming needs to be explored, studied, and practiced. Perhaps the teacher center can provide the governance structure for such cooperation.

Finally, the preparation of SBTEs and their own continuing inservice education is important to their success. Their key role as stimulators of teachers would be limited were they not themselves excited about learning and willing to communicate that to their colleagues. Thus, the education of SBTEs is critical and central to the success of teacher inservice education programs.

As schools assume greater responsibility for the continuing and inservice education of their staffs, the school-based teacher educator gains in stature, responsibility, and significance. It behooves all who are concerned with improving education to nurture the concept and the people in those roles. For so goes the improvement of education for children and youth.

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Chapter IV

DECISION MAKING ABOUT NEW PROFESSIONAL ROLES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Karl Massanari

The foregoing discussion has delineated the contextual conditions that will come into play in the determination of what new and modified roles in teacher education are needed, and has explored the respective situations within higher education institutions and schools. Decisions about the creation of new roles and supporting preparation programs will be influenced in part by how decision makers view the changing conditions in society and education, but also in terms of other priorities. Political advantage and vested interests may outweigh commitment to improving the quality of education for children in the decision-making process.

Before we project the implications of the preceding chapters, it is useful to examine briefly the characteristics of the arena within which education personnel development takes place, and to call attention to a number of underlying issues and questions likely to surface as decisions are made regarding new and modified roles in teacher education. The complex arena of teacher education includes a variety of actors who perform many functions; the position decision makers take on the issues will determine eventually what new roles in teacher education will be created and supported.

THE ARENA OF EDUCATION PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

The arena within which education personnel development takes place is complex, multifaceted, and without unified leadership. It is difficult to portray as a complete, integrated whole because in reality that is not what it is. One approach to a clearer understanding of this arena is to describe its characteristics in relation to: (a) the institutions, organizations, and agencies with a stake in education personnel development; (b) who the actors are; and (c) the functions the actors perform.

The institutions, organizations, agencies, and groups involved in some way in education personnel development include:

Higher education institutions (public and private; junior colleges, colleges, and universities
Schools (public and private; K-12)
School districts and school boards
Professional organizations and associations
Teacher, professional development, and regional service centers
Local, state, and federal government agencies
Student groups and organizations
Consumer organizations and groups
Accrediting agencies.

The actors in this arena--persons who perform functions in education personnel development--represent differing needs, motivations, and responsibilities.

Consumers of education personnel development programs

- Students in preservice preparation programs
- Professionals who participate in inservice staff development programs

Professionals who provide instruction, supervision, counseling, and consultation in pre- and inservice education programs

- Higher education faculty members, administrators, and support staffs
- Elementary and secondary school faculty members, administrators, and support staffs
- Staff members of teacher, professional development, and regional service centers
- Staff members of state departments of education

Professionals and others who initiate and monitor new programs, stimulate the improvement of educational practice, and work toward expanding the supporting knowledge base

- Staffs of federal agencies and state departments of education
- Members and staffs of professional organizations and associations
- Staffs of teacher, professional development, and regional service centers
- Higher education and school faculty members, administrators, and support staffs
- Educational researchers

Professionals and others who monitor quality control of programs and certify school personnel

- Staffs and evaluators of accrediting agencies
- Staffs of state and other certification agencies

Personnel in government agencies which legislate educational policy, approve program support, and interpret law relevant to education

- Members of local school boards
- Members of state legislatures and their support staffs
- Personnel in state departments of education
- Members of Congress and their support staffs
- Personnel in federal agencies
- Judges and members of courts

Consumers of the graduates of education personnel development programs

- The public/taxpayers
- Parents of pupils
- Members of school boards.

The functions performed by these persons cover a wide range of duties and responsibilities. In some instances these duties are clearly assigned

and defined, in others they are not. As a result, duplication and confusion of efforts often occur. Illustrative of these functions are:

Functions related to teacher education programs

- Designing and conducting preservice preparation programs
- Designing and conducting inservice education/staff development programs
- Developing curricula and instructional materials
- Establishing, supporting, and monitoring programs designed to meet special societal needs
- Evaluating program effectiveness

Functions related to the improvement of programs and educational practices

- Designing and engaging in educational research and in other activities intended to expand the supporting knowledge base
- Stimulating improvements in educational practice through publication programs, leadership training, and information dissemination
- Nurturing the health and growth of the education profession

Policy making and administrtive functions

- Formulating policies at the local, state, and federal levels
- Interpreting laws and adjudicating disputes related to educational practice
- Allocating resources to support programs
- Communicating with and influencing decision makers

Regulatory and quality control functions

- Establishing and enforcing regulations affecting programs and personnel
- Maintaining quality control over programs
- Certifying graduates of training programs

Consumer functions

- Evaluating, employing, and monitoring the performance of graduates of education personnel development programs.

Other characteristics of the teacher education arena should be mentioned:

- A complex set of dynamics is often at work when individual actors or the groups they represent interact with each other during the process of making decisions. Political and vested interests tend to be predominant over other considerations. "Who is in charge" often gets in the way of "how we can improve what we're doing."

- The absence of unified leadership means that education personnel development lacks an overarching conceptual framework and coordinated direction.

- Education personnel have not yet decided what they want: to be or become a full-blown profession; to remain as they essentially are now, a semi-profession; or to join the ranks of the trade crafts and labor unions. They are not united on this issue.

- The knowledge base which supports education personnel development is inadequate and needs to be expanded.

UNDERLYING ISSUES

Decision making about new and modified professional roles in teacher education will be influenced to a great extent by the positions decision makers take on a number of issues. While these issues will surface as educators solve other problems, they have special relevance to education personnel development. As was argued earlier, different viewpoints about and responses to changing conditions in society and education lead to different perceptions about the kinds of teacher educators needed in the future, and about what professional roles are needed in teacher education. The following issues appear to be among the most relevant:

Issues related to schools

- Is the fundamental purpose of schools to teach "basics," or is it to be concerned with the welfare of total persons? What is the essential role of the classroom teacher?

- Should there be differentiated staffing in schools? Should the improvement of children's education be the determining factor in deciding whether or not differentiated staffing is needed, or are political and other considerations valid factors?

Issues related to education personnel development programs

- Should the preparation of education personnel in higher education institutions continue to be offered at both undergraduate and graduate levels or only at the graduate level? Should schools and colleges of education become separate professional schools parallel to medical schools or law schools?

- Is self-perception of needs an adequate basis for designing inservice education programs for professional school personnel?

- As new and modified professional roles in teacher education emerge, new preparation programs for those roles will be required. Which institutions and/or agencies should be responsible for designing and conducting such preparation programs?

Issues related to professional practice

- What does it mean to be an education professional? Should education strive to become a profession, be content to remain a semi-profession, or join the ranks of the trade crafts and labor unions?

- On what basis is the performance of education professionals to be judged? What evidence demonstrates professional competence? How can education professionals convince the public that they are "accountable"?

Issues related to administration

- How will human, economic, and physical resources be allocated for education personnel development by the federal government? State governments? Colleges and universities? School districts? Other agencies?

- As preservice teacher education programs become more field-based, and as schools assume more responsibility for inservice education, parents of pupils and the public generally become more concerned about the role of schools in society. How can parents and the public and other decision makers be convinced that education personnel development is a legitimate function of schools?

- What incentives and rewards should be created to motivate personnel in higher education institutions and schools to participate productively in staff development activities? How can the constraints which seem to prohibit revision of present policies be minimized?

- The completion of different kinds of inservice education programs is recognized in different ways, such as by college/university credit or continuing education units. Should these different forms of recognition be standardized?

Issues related to governance and quality control

- Will various sectors in education (state departments; schools, colleges, and departments of education; teacher organizations; school districts) insist on continuing fragmented and separate approaches to education personnel development, or will they join in cooperative approaches? Will there be a recognition that no one sector has a monopoly on wisdom and that ultimately our hope is in harnassing our collective wisdom? And if education opts for cooperative approaches, how can various sectors collaborate effectively?

- How should the quality of education personnel preparation and development programs which are conducted by colleges/universities, schools, teacher and regional service centers, and other agencies be controlled? What are the indicators of quality in these programs?

- What should be the appropriate functions of federal and state agencies in education personnel development? What qualifications are required for staff members responsible for those functions?

- How can the present fragmented, disparate efforts to provide education personnel development be integrated into some agreed-upon conceptual framework? Who should participate in the formulation of such a conceptual framework? Does the profession need an umbrella agency to give direction to, coordinate, and facilitate education personnel development programs?

These underlying issues and others provide the intellectual context in which decisions will be made about what new and modified professional roles for teacher educators are needed, and for a delineation of some specific consequences for groups involved in education personnel development.

IMPLICATIONS: ANOTHER LOOK AT THE ACTORS

In the preceding description of the teacher education arena, particular attention was called to the actors who perform various functions in education personnel development. Another look at these persons provides a convenient basis for spinning out a number of implications of the main thesis of this monograph, that changing conditions in society and education call for new professional roles in teacher education.

For Students in Elementary and Secondary Schools

The actors who really ought to be front stage in the teacher education arena are the students in schools. It is primarily for them that schools exist; they, not the parents or education professionals or professional organizations and associations or state and federal agencies, are the essential clients.

Whatever decisions are or are not made about new professional roles in teacher education will have a direct bearing on students in schools and the quality of education provided for them. This criterion, more than any other, should be the dominant consideration in making decisions about new professional roles in teacher education and preparation programs for those roles.

For the Profession at Large

Education personnel are not yet united about what they want to be or become. Some argue that deliberate steps should be taken to make education a true profession like medicine or law. Others seem content to remain a semi-profession. Still others would have classroom teaching become little more than a craft. At times educators attempt to behave as members of a profession, at other times as members of labor unions.

What is ahead is not clear. But as long as education personnel are not united on this question, there will be fundamental disagreements about what new roles are needed in teacher education. It is also clear that if, indeed, we do want to become a profession, then we should begin behaving like one on a consistent basis.

For the Federal Government/USOE

Among the leadership roles of the U.S. Office of Education is the responsibility for establishing, supporting, and monitoring education programs designed to fill special societal needs which likely would not be met otherwise. The success of many such programs depends on how well education personnel implement them; and successful implementation, in turn, depends on how well prepared personnel are to teach new subject matter, use new instructional strategies, and assume new or modified professional roles. Staff development of both school and higher education personnel often is

required. The modification of professional roles or the creation of new ones is implied if not required. While provisions for staff development are sometimes included in such programs, support tends to be minimal, and in many cases is not provided for at all. Provisions for staff development of personnel in schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) are seldom included.

The Elementary-Secondary Education Act of 1965, for example, provided approximately a billion dollars to urban schools to upgrade the quality of education for children from poor backgrounds and to help solve some of the problems associated with such improvement. No support was included for staff development. Teachers turned to SCDEs for help. Because the SCDEs generally had neither the expertise nor the resources to develop it, they could provide little assistance in implementing the legislation. What was needed was substantial support for staff development of both school and higher education personnel.

The recent teacher center legislation supports the establishment of local, school-based centers as one vehicle to provide inservice education for classroom teachers. What kind of personnel will direct these centers? What preparation do center directors need and who will provide it? The legislation does not speak directly to such needed staff development. Teacher Corps, on the other hand, deals more realistically with the staff development problems. The staffs of Teacher Corps projects include program development specialists and community coordinators, newly created professional roles for teacher educators. Their functions are specified at least in broad terms. There was a recognition that new professional roles were needed to assist in the implementation of program goals. However, Teacher Corps legislation did not address the questions of what competencies such new personnel need, how they should be prepared, and who should provide the preparation. Each new federal program should include substantial support for staff development of school and higher education personnel to ensure successful implementation of the new program. This position is supported by the AACTE Commission on Government Relations and the Education Policy Committee of the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges, which jointly have developed an in-house concept paper delineating criteria to be used in taking positions regarding education personnel development in future proposals by the federal government. They argue that "SCDEs need to change in order to operate most successfully as service institutions relative to new federally mandated programs and activities. They also need to be able to create more flexible and responsive preservice programs."[10]

One criterion is particularly relevant: "Existing and proposed federal education professional development programs should be examined in view of the goals of providing asistance for schools, colleges, and departments of education in making personnel and curriculum accommodations necessary to enable them to respond to the direct and often indirect requirements of the new programs designed for particular purposes and clients."

For State Governments/State Departments of Education

Under the "implied powers" provision of the U.S. Constitution, states carry heavy responsibility for education. Implications of the foregoing discussion, therefore, are particularly significant to state legislatures

10 Unpublished concept paper, 1977.

and state departments of education. Four recent developments illustrate consequences for staff development.

Stimulated by the need to coordinate fragmented efforts, states are beginning to formulate comprehensive statewide plans for education personnel development. Several states (for example, Florida, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, Oregon, and West Virginia) already have taken steps to develop such plans. An essential element of any comprehensive state plan should be the provision of staff development of teacher educators in colleges and universities, in schools, and in teacher, professional development, and regional service centers. State plans should address such questions as: What kinds of professionals are needed to provide effective staff development programs for school personnel? What kinds of preparation programs are needed for those professionals, and how are these programs to be supported?

As a more specific example, states are expected to develop plans to respond to Public Law 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act. It is also incumbent on the states to provide major support for the implementation of this federal legislation. Some reference to staff development is included in the Act, but planning and implementation are left to the several states. Staff development will be required for teacher educators in higher education institutions, schools, teacher/professional development/regional service centers, and probably state agency staffs. Appropriate support for such staff development should be an integral part of the implemention strategies.

Some states (for example, Florida, North Carolina, Texas, Rhode Island, and West Virginia) have taken steps to create and maintain various types of centers as a means of providing more effective inservice education to school personnel. Other states are exploring the desirability of doing so. Not being addressed head on, however, are such questions as: What is the nture of the professional roles of center staff members? What competencies do they need? What kind of preparation programs for these roles are needed, and who will provide them? How will preparation be supported? States have the responsibility to find answers to these questions.

Recent federal legislation will support the creation of a network of local, school-based teacher centers as a vehicle to provide inservice education for classroom teachers. States are expected to provide technical assistance to these centers, and some support for this function is provided in the legislation. Staff development programs to meet the needs of center staff members, and personnel to support those programs, should be included in technical assistance provided by states.

For Schools and School Districts

As schools and school personnel increasingly become involved in education personnel development, new kinds of problems surface. Among these:

1. Determination of the kinds of professionals needed to implement agreed-upon school goals and objectives
2. Provision of staff development opportunities for school personnel by the school itself or in cooperation with other agencies and institutions
3. Determination of the kinds of professionals needed to provide effective staff development, and how and where these professionals will be trained

4. Allocation of resources--people, time, dollars--to support staff development
5. Creation of appropriate incentives/rewards to motivate school personnel to engage in staff development activities
6. Establishment or strengthening of linkages with state departments of education, colleges and universities, teacher/professional development/regional service centers
7. The public relations task of convincing the public--the parents and taxpayers--that education personnel development is a legitimate function of schools.

For Colleges and Universities

Changing conditions in society and education have had and are having a powerful impact in the area of education personnel development, especially at higher education institutions. Traditionally, colleges and universities were the major providers of pre- and inservice education programs for school personnel. But this situation has changed markedly, if not radically, as a result of the decline of federal support for education personnel development in higher education, the emergence of an increasing number of staff development programs operated exclusively by schools, and the establishment of an increasing number of teacher, professional development, and regional service centers. These developments reflect general dissatisfaction with the quality and relevance of higher education staff development programs and a search for more effective ways to deliver them.

Given these and other changes, a number of implications seem apparent for schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) in relation to new or modified professional roles for teacher educators. Among these are: (a) the need to develop new or strengthen existing linkages with personnel in schools; (b) the reexamination of present inservice education programs and services with the view of upgrading them and making them more effective in meeting the needs of school personnel; (c) the design of appropriate preparation programs for school-based teacher educators and staff members of teacher, professional development, and regional service centers; and (d) the implementation of appropriate staff development programs for SCDE personnel to equip them, in turn, to provide more effective staff development opportunities for school personnel.[11]

While the major concern of this monograph is the nature of professional roles needed to provide effective preservice and inservice education programs for school personnel, implications for other kinds of roles should be mentioned. Education personnel are needed in other settings which are not directly related to schools: in educational divisions of business and industry, the press and media, community agencies and volunteer organizations, adult and continuing education programs, the military, prisons, health-related services, and other professional colleges (such as medicine, dentistry, law, and nursing). Schools and colleges of education have the opportunity to develop imaginative preparation programs for such nonschool

[11] As part of its Staff Development Project, funded by Teacher Corps through San Francisco State University, AACTE is sponsoring four regional workshops to identify critical staff development needs of SCDE personnel. It is envisioned that the findings of these workshops will be published and disseminated.

professional roles. Doing so requires a careful analysis of the competencies needed for such roles and the provision of appropriate expertise for instruction and supervision. An exploration of these topics, however, deserves fuller treatment than can be given in this monograph.

For School-Based Teacher Educators and Staffs of Teacher, Professional Development, and Regional Service Centers

Among new professional roles in education personnel development which already are emerging are those of school-based teacher educators and staff members of various types of centers. As yet these roles and the required competencies for them have not been clearly defined. Experience and client expectations will help to determine what they will be. It is clear, however, that persons who assume these new professional roles will be expected to have some competence in teacher education; it is not likely that everyone who assumes these new roles will be prepared to do so. Staff development will be required. These new professionals will need to continue their own education to prepare them to perform new functions more effectively.

REFLECTIONS

We have argued that changing conditions in society and education call for modifications of present professional roles in teacher education and, in some cases, the creation of new ones. It is evident already that professional roles are beginning to be modified and that new roles are emerging. But the full impact of these changing conditions has not yet been felt by the education profession at large. Changes in the roles teacher educators perform are necessary if preservice education programs are to prepare personnel equipped to work in schools that themselves are responsive to changing societal conditions, and if inservice education programs are to be responsive to the current and future needs of school personnel.

What also has surfaced here is what many educators have recognized for some time--that staff development of teacher educators has been and continues to be grossly neglected by federal and state governments, higher education institutions, schools, and professional organizations and associations. We hold that if the quality of education for children is to be improved--if changes are to be effected in school programs--then appropriate staff development opportunities need to be provided for all professional personnel who have either direct or indirect responsibilities for implementing those changes. Staff development of teacher educators is an essential ingredient in the total change process, and this includes those who work in colleges and universities, schools, state departments of education, teacher centers, professional development centers, and regional service centers. To neglect support for staff development of teacher educators is to dilute commitment to improving education for American children and youth.

CRITIQUE*

Roy Edelfelt

A logical way to critique this volume is to react to the chapters one at a time. I will do so, but at the same time I want to reflect on the entire volume, for it is in some ways a single expression, and it is important to view a synthesis of ideas.

CHAPTER I

I was helped by the authors' attempts to set the context, although they do so almost too briefly. The authors describe how they view existing conditions, first in broad strokes, then in issues and problems that are more specific, and finally in education and teacher education. The treatment of social issues is a little too quick and easy to provide a setting that should be remembered as a backdrop throughout the volume. That may be why the authors themselves seemed at times to forget the context. For example, from the list of compelling issues and problems (distrust of institutions, centralization of power, reliance on the courts to set moral standards, lack of personal physical security, limits of resources worldwide), I would conclude that the authors are implicitly calling for review of the purposes of schools in our society. Such a review happens only peripherally as the authors enumerate issues and problems of education. They seem almost eager to get to the circumstances of teacher education without helping the reader understand the relation of the larger social picture to current events in education and teacher education. I was left to search out my own conclusions of cause and effect: for example, distrust of institutions leads to the call for accountability; centralization of power causes more state and federal legislators to decree the improvement of programs. Some of the school responses to social problems I found missing, such as how education and teacher education respond to court-mandated morals, increased violence and crime, shortages of natural resources, pollution, inflation, unemployment, and so on.

Had the purposes of schools been considered as a result of reviewing the broader context, there might have been a different order to the chapters in the volume. That would have helped me consider new roles in teacher education from a base of what schools need in personnel. My line of thinking is that we decide first what schools should be like; then we decide the kinds of personnel needed to operate them; then we know what personnel must be prepared; and finally we know the kinds of programs and personnel needed in teacher education (school and college) to get the job done. Perhaps my line of thinking is too logical and rational for the real world. But it is worth thinking problems through in that way so that the evidence is at hand in case rational decision-making is possible.

In reviewing the conditions of education and teacher education, the authors turn first to enrollment data--fewer students in schools and record numbers of teachers being graduated. Their conclusion that the teacher shortage has been eliminated is too simple. The generalization that the oversupply of teachers has caused a stable teaching force is overstated.

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* This critique presumes that the reader has already read the preceding pages, and will make reference to each chapter as necessary.

Unemployment in general, fewer graduate study opportunities, a much tighter job market in higher education, and the reduction in the number of teachers in special areas (art, music, foreign languages) and in the elementary schools--all have contributed to elimination of teacher shortages and a more stable teaching force.

I take issue with another piece of reasoning in this chapter--the assumption that a stable teaching force is the major force motivating legislators to mandate minimum outcomes. That seems like less than the full story. Simultaneous with the changes in supply and demand and the stabilizing of the teaching force, there has been a swing back from the radicalism and violence of the sixties to more conservatism, an economic recession, a major realignment of the world economy created by OPEC increases in oil prices--all of which has nurtured uncertainty and fostered legislative action in the states to proceed responsibly and carefully, ergo to tighten education budgets.

The report of the political situation within the profession is perceptive and accurate in recognizing the increased impact of organized teachers on decision making. But to suggest that "more and more" resources for professional development will be influenced by collective bargaining is faulty logic, in my opinion. Collective bargaining will undoubtedly influence the circumstances of inservice education locally, but teacher organization leaders will be wiser than to force a choice between professional development funds and salary and fringe benefits. To avoid such a dilemma, I predict that they will seek state and federal support for staff development (as they have with teacher centers) with the strong rationale that an adequate teaching force is more than a local responsibility.

Amidst their comments on the shifts in power and the increased prominence of teachers, the writers observe that "the education 'profession' <u>at large</u> (my emphasis) is trying to decide whether" it wants to be fully professional or quasi-professional. Saying it that way may be an exercise of editorial license, but it does mislead. There is no deliberative body that decides on anything for the "profession." The various political forces within and outside the profession are wrestling with this question. In most forums of educators the opinion is unanimous--teaching should be a profession. Many also agree that an internship should be required to bridge the gap between preparation and full professional service. But there is as yet no representative body to speak for the entire profession.

Parenthetically the time is ideal to institute an internship: an additional year of training would reduce the supply of teachers for a year and might throw the supply-demand ratio into better balance--assuming, of course, that interns work under the tutelage of experienced master teachers and are not replacements for regular practitioners.

The author's discussion of approaches (keeping pace by adapting, projecting needed personnel from an analysis of current need, and predicting need by forecasting the future) to considering emerging roles in teacher education helps to suggest optional ways by which decisions about new types of personnel will be made. I wish the authors, identifying these options, had included a section on the goals, objectives, lifestyle, format, and organization of the schools for which teachers are prepared. The process of decisions about goals is also important because of the essential need to involve teachers, parents, administrators, students, and teacher educators. Changes (improvements) will not come easily unless all these people are included in decision making; commitment grows out of involvement.

There also is little reference to the setting of teacher education. Should the reader assume that the three approaches are set in the existing scheme of teacher education? Is the assumption that teacher education takes place largely in the university, partly in the school district? How different will the prescription for personnel (new roles) in teacher education be if the setting is primarily the university, or primarily the school, or some balanced combination of both? These questions are addressed later in the chapter; I am suggesting that they influence the ways in which we approach new roles and should be addressed as we consider approaches, not after.

The discussion of the shortfall of the teaching profession in being able "to meet the educational challenges of modern time" implies the profession is at fault for its alleged inadequacy ("The failure of the teaching profession to advance . . ."). If blame is to be assigned, it must be shared with the public. Teaching of children and youth in the United States is a public profession. Although the profession can initiate and foster changes in preparation and practice, the public controls policy formation and financial support for most training programs and professional working conditions.

The quote from Educating a Profession, indicating that the teaching profession needs new concepts to serve a human-services society adequately, is so true. The several pages that expand on this notion and discuss some of the needed new roles are helpful in moving thinking toward reform of education and toward needed roles in teacher education. But the omission of consideration of the organization, structure, and schedule of the schools in which teachers practice is unfortunate. There are limits to the improvements possible in education if we focus only on the adequacy and kind of personnel available. The conditions in which teachers work also need attention--that is, the way teaching and learning are expected to take place (in classrooms where one teacher teaches 20-25 students at once), and the teacher's schedule of time spent teaching (rather than a better balance between planning, teaching, and evaluation). There are other factors as well--such as the reliance on textbooks and other packaged materials, the narrow focus on a few so-called basic subjects, standard requirements for all students, the social-psychological climate of schools, the confinement of schooling to school buildings. The point is that roles cannot be considered with attention mainly to existing job descriptions or to the elements of professional competence. The circumstances in which teacher competence must be exercised and the social and material support available in those circumstances influence what it is possible for teachers to do.

Establishing the conditions in which competent professional practice is possible is a political and economic as well as an educational question. It would have been helpful to have at least some models of the possible conditions and an idea of their cost.

CHAPTER II

The 15 problems Drummond identifies as internal to teacher education in schools, colleges, and departments of education (colleges of education, for short) are an accurate, candid recital of present circumstances. In a sense the negative scene depicted leads one to suspect that anything said about creating new roles or circumstances for college-based teacher

educators is purely for survival purposes. Survival is a basic consideration, though not a high-minded motive. It is pragmatic, and colleges of education must exist if they are to function.

It is useful to have a college professor catalog the ills of colleges of education. Admission by an insider may be less suspect than accusations by an outsider.

Although Drummond is accurate and candid, he is less than comprehensive. He could have criticized the dominance of higher education over teacher education. Colleges of education cannot operate on many of the 16 assumptions drawn by Drummond unless they have more autonomy in higher education, unless they become professional schools that can make decisions about professional training without the interference of campus-wide academic senates. In fact, the academic and political autonomy needed on campus may be prerequisites to the changes inherent in the Drummond assumptions.

Another criticism Drummond doesn't raise is the failure of college-based teacher educators to study, analyze, and interpret the scene in elementary and secondary education. If the attention of scholars in teacher education had been better focused on developments in schools, the circumstances and remedies developed in this chapter might never have been needed. Teacher education paid a price to get into the college and university community, to gain acceptance in higher education. The mortgage is paid; it is time to take ownership.

One last comment on Drummond's recitation of internal problems: There are also difficult problems that should be labelled external. For example, the social distance between colleges of education personnel and school personnel is great, and there are professional-class distinctions too. Teachers know where they are in the hierarchy in terms of freedom, prerogatives, status, rewards, stimulation. Ultimately the question must be how to improve the circumstances of school teachers and how college of education personnel can help that happen. In reverse, there is probably no way colleges of education will get autonomy and independence in higher education without the political support of the organized teaching profession.

The mutual benefits to both teachers (and the school programs they operate) and professors (and colleges of education) become more explicit when the linkage is made between calling for more field-based, school-site oriented teacher education and assuming, as Drummond has, that the "most logical and appropriate political constituencies are the organized profession . . . and lay citizens who are involved in public education. . . ." At another time more should be made of the mutual benefits and the professional-political relationships of the points Drummond covers.

Most of the assumptions in this chapter require taking some new initiatives. Drummond's table, College-Based Teacher Education Work in Transition, indicates a number of specific initiatives and gives a sense of what the transformation of college-based teacher educators might be. There is one significant omission--the incentives and rewards necessary to stimulate and satisfy faculty to move from old to new ways of providing teacher education. Let me illustrate how such items might appear in Drummond's "From" column; the reader can project how they might be stated in the "To" column:

FROM	TO
Earning renown thorough research and writing addressed to colleagues in a national forum Maintaining independence and freedom by designing and finding support for research and writing from outside sources Earning a national reputation to ensure local status and reward Commanding rank and salary at the local level by remaining in demand in a national market Finding reward for performance and achievement through a system of promotion, salary increases, and status assignment controlled by the total university faculty and administration	

One final comment on the material appearing before Drummond gets into "Emerging Roles": Nowhere do I get the message that it is (and will be) important to integrate preservice and inservice teacher education. Moreover, among the roles that Drummond outlines subsequently, all seem clearly preservice or inservice. There could be roles with responsibilities for connecting and relating the two levels of training. Personnel in these roles could help preservice and inservice teachers learn from each other. They could be responsible for team inservice education, activities that involve all the personnel in a building--nonprofessional, quasi-professional, and professional.

Drummond's role types are useful not only because he identifies the kinds of college-based teacher educators that are emerging, but also because he provides a short narrative for each to indicate what a role might involve. The problem I find is that some of these roles are not unique to colleges of education; some sound identical to roles that Houston has included for school-based teacher educators. That school and college roles in teacher education overlap is not bad. Unfortunately neither Houston nor Drummond discusses the overlap. Common features need discussion, and the differences in organization, fiscal set-up, and modus operandi of school and college need to be considered.

There may be need for some new structures to accommodate teacher education in the middle ground between school and college. And it may be necessary to facilitate decision making and other operationl matters where school and college teacher educators overlap. One example of a new structure is the policy board that the federal teacher centers program requires to supervise a teacher center. It will be instructive to observe

how policy boards operate, as we consider other mechanisms for the governance of school/college collaboration in teacher education. Drummond's concluding remarks are upbeat and optimistic. I can agree with most of the reasons for his looking at opportunity rather than problems, except for his statement that "for the first time colleges of education have the time and resources to try to improve professional practice." Teacher education is undersupported; it prepares teachers at or below the cost of liberal arts training and in no way compares with engineering, pharmacy, accounting, law, or other professions in cost per person prepared. Teacher education needs much more support, not only for the cost of training in traditional modes but also for inservice education that becomes an integral part of a teacher's assignment.

CHAPTER III

There has never been much legitimacy to teacher education in schools. This chapter should help give credibility to both the necessity and reasonableness of having school-based teacher educators.

I am not satisfied, however, with the reasons given for the emergence of these personnel in schools. Both here and in Chapter II the first reasons mentioned are the more than adequate supply of teachers and a more stable teaching force. What goes unmentioned is that most teachers have bachelor's degrees, the push for preservice education is reduced, and public and professional alike recognize that the most direct way to improve school programs is to have an impact on the central figure (the teacher) in the education process.

Are roles for teacher educators really emerging? "Emerging" suggests that teacher educator roles are growing out of developing circumstances; that may be true to an extent, but roles have also been inflicted. It happened when colleges moved student teaching into schools and made classroom teachers cooperating teachers. It occurred when supervisors in science and mathematics, and ultimately in most other subjects, became purveyors of new curricula in their respective areas. And it is true now as curriculum directors and other central office personnel decree behavioral objectives, criterion-referenced tests, competency-based education, and accountability in general. There is a teacher education dimension to almost every new law or demand being made--for example, special education, multicultural education, bilingual education, career education, and drug abuse education. Teacher centers impose yet another set of new roles that are school based.

The definition of the school-based teacher educator is general in Houston's chapter, and it probably needs to be; there are so many versions and so many different circumstances. I wish he had written more <u>of</u> teacher education in schools than <u>about</u> it--by that I mean what it is like and what school-based teacher educators do, rather than the models, formulas, alignments, supra systems, and so forth. The tone, therefore, is often administrative, and that will be helpful to administrators; but what of the reader who is looking over the prospects of finding a new niche, and what of the new teacher who wants to know what to expect of school-based teacher educators?

Houston's discussion of the existing system of teacher education and the influence that system has in shaping emerging roles is important. Both

higher education and school traditions in teacher education strongly influence what is possible in school-based teacher education. Perhaps this is another reason to examine the idea of emerging roles. It is possible that roles are not emerging rationally out of need and purpose but rather are being transplanted and adapted from an existing system.

I have trouble understanding the second thesis of Houston's chapter, that school-based teacher educator roles that digress from tradition are "more illusionary than real." First, there is no expansion of the ways in which professional development is illusionary and traditional authority real, and second, the distinction is probably more real than illusionary. That is, teacher education under the auspices of the school district to assure the quality of school program (what is labelled "traditional authority") is a logical and defensible activity that teachers take part in as employes of the school district. Its purpose is to provide greater assurance that public goals for education are carried out. It is real.

Professional development is also real. It is the teacher's own responsibility, and the purpose is the teacher's personal-professional development. The choice of what, how, where, and when such inservice education takes place is the teacher's.*

Inservice teacher education for school improvement (traditional authority) and for individual professional development usually can take place simultaneously and separately, but they are not unrelated. The styles of the school-based teacher educator in serving these two purposes of inservice education are different, as Houston points out. What he does not say is that the same school-based teacher educator probably cannot serve both purposes. The emphasis on authority, direction, and compliance in the "traditional authority" position and the free, independent, self-help flavor of the "professional development" position polarizes the two concepts. Illustrations of such a difference are easy to find; but they are not inevitable nor are they necessary. The question may be where authority is seen to rest. If the "authority of the situation" is a major motivation for teachers, they may assume as diligent a role in supporting inservice education for school improvement as any administrator. And when teachers are aware professionals, the conventional wisdom of the profession as an entity will influence free and independent judgment as much as personal choice will. In both positions there are and ought to be checks and balances. The kind and style of checks and balances, not the fact, are the issue. It would be unfortunate to characterize school-improvement teacher education arbitrarily as directed, controlled, authoritative, monitored, and compliant in nature, and professional development as free, independent, self-selected, self-directed, and internalized.

*Note: In telephone conversation, Houston took issue with this interpretation of his second thesis. The description of SBTE roles that depart from tradition as "more illusionary than real" conveyed Houston's belief that little fundamental change in those roles has occurred in institutional practice despite appearances to the contrary. He added that Edelfelt's remarks anticipate the discussion, in the third thesis, about traditional authority and professional development perceptions of SBTEs, and that Edelfelt seemed to interpret these as absolutes rather than as extremes of a continuum. Houston felt the combining of the two discrete theses could lead to confusion for the reader.

The actual illustrations of roles and emerging roles from several school districts lends reality to Houston's discourse. It would have been helpful if the role illustrations from Dallas and Kanawha County had indicated line and staff distinctions and the competencies and activities that each type of role undertakes. The problem in most school districts is that ultimately all school-based teacher educators are in "traditional authority" roles; they all report to somebody about how somebody else (the teacher) is doing. Refreshing is the system that employs school-based teacher educators who, in the professional development model, are available only to help teachers. "Ombudsman" types meet that definition. Teacher center staff members often satisfy that goal. Think of the prospects of raising the trust level if just a few school-based teacher educators could eliminate compliance, surveillance, control, authority, and direction from their vocabulary and professional lifestyle.

As Houston moves through illustrations from Dallas, Kanawha County, Urbana, Fairfax County, and Arlington, the "traditional authority/ professional development" distinction fades. It is not easy to discern which roles, activities, and competencies describe one role and which describe the other. The impression I get from reading is almost as vague as the one a person gets from looking in on the real life of any one of these schools. When is the school-based teacher educator directing, monitoring, evaluating, and when is he or she assisting, supporting, facilitating? It makes a difference, but the difference is difficult to distinguish.

The resource-teacher illustration (from Fairfax County) is a good one. Clearly the resource teacher is a supportive person. But the need to advertise "nonthreatening" suggests that there is enough that threatens to call attention to people and situations that do not threaten.

The inclusion of some of the findings from the study of school-based teacher educators by Houston and others helps to make my point. "Staff developers don't develop staff," I suspect, because they are too busy monitoring or, as Houston reports, too inundated with responsibilities that keep them from teachers.

I liked the list of competencies that Houston quoted from Cooper et al. I would have liked to have a series of vignettes illustrating these competencies. We all need to know how they would look on people.

At the close of the chapter I was still left with a lot of questions. For example, if school-based teacher educators are emerging, then we are not faced with training them. Or are we? If we are to train them--and surely we will--how should potential teacher educators be selected? Will there be a precise system to select, train, and place them, and will there be ways to monitor practice? Or will people emerge into school-based teacher educator roles? If they emerge, will they be socialized into the status quo?

One difficult underlying question that Houston poses for me is: Can the system of teacher education reform itself? And can that happen where we are considering new kinds of personnel?

CHAPTER IV

The first sections of this chapter are valuable in bringing together some of the thoughts necessary to get at action, and the questions raised

(except those that are clearly rhetorical) will be helpful to decision makers as the problems of new roles and directions in teacher education get discussed.

I feel less comfortable about the implications that close the book. Some are clearly answers to the questions raised early in the chapter. How appropriate is that? Some conclusions are not conclusions. For example, again begging the question of whether the "profession" wants to become a profession, I detect, is an assumption that the profession is a tangible, organized entity, that there exists a forum representing all elements of the profession in which discussion of any issue can take place. There is no such forum, and thus, the issue of a "profession" cannot have been deliberated in it. Perhaps there ought be such a forum. One may develop as policy questions on inservice education become state and national issues. This book might recommend that such a forum be convened. But as of now, it should not be concluded that becoming a profession is more than a moot question.

The chapter also implies that there should be agreement on "what kinds of new roles are needed in teacher education." Seeking such agreement seems premature. For reasons I have already stated in reacting to previous chapters, there are good arguments to avoid crystallizing. It also seems ironic for the authors to discuss "emerging roles" and then complain about the lack of fundamental agreement on the new roles needed.

Some of the writing in the section on implications goes beyond what the work connotes, to become hortatory--for example: "It is also clear that if, indeed, we do want to become a profession, then we should begin behaving like one on a consistent basis."

Implications seem at times to be stated as conclusions, and some of the conclusions seem not to be based on earlier discussion. For example, the implication that staff development for both school and higher education personnel is often required to carry out new programs mandated by federal legislation quickly becomes a recommendation: "Each new federal program should include substantial support for staff development of school and higher education personnel to ensure successful implementation of the new program." To go this far preempts the kinds of decisions the reader ought to be making. It precludes discussion of the book's content. It provides closure on a topic that has only begun to be open for discussion.

There is also confusion along the way in the recommendations regarding colleges of education. Colleges of education are higher education and do not include school-based teacher educators or other K-12 personnel. If the implication is that there should be staff development for college-based teacher educators, there should also be staff development for school-based teacher educators. Mention of the unpublished criteria developed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (ACSESULGC) is inappropriate because they do not include public school personnel.

When the authors mention teacher centers, they question what kinds of personnel are needed, what preparation the personnel need, and who will provide it. Teacher centers already have emerged in the United States; so have the staffs that operate them. Rather than directly question what preparation personnel need to operate teacher centers and who will provide it, the authors might more appropriately investigate how teacher centers have emerged and how they have evolved, and what teacher center staffs are like.

Again, in the implications for state governments and departments of education, the language is strong and recommending rather than suggestive. "Should" is too heavy for an implication--"Any comprehensive state plan should . . . ," "attention should be given to kind of professionals . . . needed," and "staff development should be an integral part."

As the discussion moves to implications for the schools and for colleges and universities, the tone of the writing is much more that of implications. Readers will probably respond better to this lighter touch; they will not feel that the situation has been preempted. Drawing implications is like setting an agenda, which most of this book does. Making conclusions on this subject at least should come later and should probably be done at schools and colleges where the action is.

IN CONCLUSION

This book opens a topic of vital concern to the entire education community. It begins to bring together the separate efforts of schools and colleges.

School-based teacher education and college-based teacher education are not separable. Considering teacher education roles makes it necessary for school and college people to get together on a topic that neither can deal with alone. It is not only roles in teacher education but also respective roles in the education profession that must get into this discussion. The implications of such a discussion for the future professionalization of teaching are important to all professionals. There is even a possibility that the question of competence will be revisited, not packaged as neatly as in performance-based teacher education, but as a renewed effort to examine competence in contexts. The emphasis on competence for teacher educators will also prove valuable psychologically; a group that looks first at its own competence, then at the competence of others, has more credibility.

The volume also makes a contribution by beginning the examination of roles in teacher education with a consideration of social circumstances. Reflecting on problems in the larger world and viewing education and teacher education in that broader context are first steps to staying on target and keeping in touch with the mood of the times. Both are important if relevant education and appropriate timing are to be assured.

The political realities of decision making in education begin to come through in this volume. There may be more exhorting than is necessary. I hope there is enough persuasion to attract political support for some of the ideas.

The changing world of the school still needs more examination by teacher educators. There still is too little attention to the school as a social system. Like others in American life, teacher educators tend to focus on the individual and ignore the group and the system. As work proceeds on new roles in teacher education the organization and/or system of schools--its norms and characteristics must be examined--to distinguish between when the system and when the individuals need attention, and to note that often, they need consideration simultaneously.

I mentioned earlier the survival instincts that have become evident in many colleges of education. Without reducing the motivation to change that the threat of survival can instill, I want to suggest that examining and

developing roles in teacher education may be one route to reducing the dilemma of many college-based teacher educators. If colleges of education learn to function in ways that serve schools and other institutions of education, there will be work for all. There really need not be a contest for clients. There is more work to be done in pre- and inservice education than all college- and school-based teacher educators can handle. The problem is developing program and approaches that satisfy practitioner needs.